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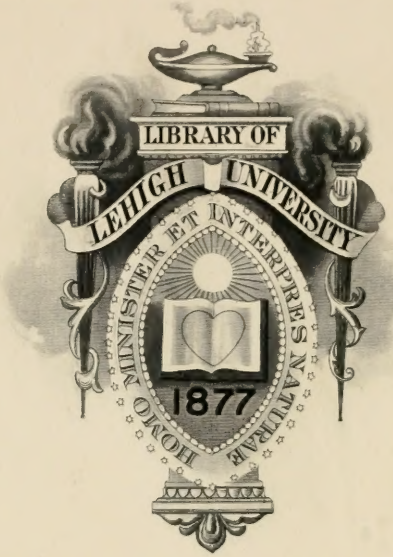

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DEBATE COACHING

A HANDBOOK FOR TEACHERS AND COACHES

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BY

CARROLL POLLOCK LAHMAN M. A.

In Charge of Men's Debating, Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan

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Dedicated to the Memory of My Father,

Fremont Diehl Lahman

Holder of deep convictions,
Lover of friendly controversy,
Believer in the power of the spoken word.

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PREFACE

This book is not another text. It is intended as a manual for those who either direct or intend to direct debating in high school and college. An attempt has been made to present a maximum of practical suggestions, growing out of several years' active direction of high school and college forensics. No claim to originality is made for many of the suggestions offered, but at the same time actual experience with most of them leads to the hope that others may profit from them as well. Aside from use as a coach's manual, this handbook should prove useful for members of college debate squads and for those preparing to teach speech in secondary schools.

Throughout the book there is an emphasis on coaching to which some may object, or if they do not object to the emphasis, they may object to the term "coach." Let those who object to "coaching" substitute "directing" or "supervising" or "teaching." Change of wording will not invalidate the principles set forth or the suggestions offered.

To the possible charge of being repetitious I plead guilty in advance. It has seemed best to make the discussion of a given point or a given step complete even though some of the items considered must be taken up again in another connection. Furthermore, such repetition is of matter whose importance may well be emphasized by this method. The entire book has been written with the thought of immediate usefulness constantly in mind.

Grateful acknowledgement for permission to use copyrighted material is extended to the following authors and publishers: Marshall Jones Company for a

quotation from Meiklejohn's *The Liberal College,* James Milton O'Neill for several sentences from *The Principles of Effective Debating and How to Judge a Debate,* the publishers of *School and Society* for H. A. White's report on high school debating, The Macmillan Company for two excerpts from O'Neill, Laycock, and Scales's *Argumentation and Debate,* Harper and Brothers for two quotations from Collins and Morris's *Persuasion and Debate,* the National Association of Teachers of Speech for various excerpts, as indicated in the text, from *Speech Training and Public Speaking for Secondary Schools* (Drummond) and the *Quarterly Journal of Speech,* The H. W. Wilson Company for two quotations from the *University Debaters' Annual,* 1926-1927, and A. Craig Baird for sentences from *Public Discussion and Debate.*

To Professor Elmer Wilds, colleague at Western State Teachers College, I express my appreciation for instigating the writing of this book; to Professor A. T. Weaver of the University of Wisconsin for direction in its preliminary preparation as a graduate thesis; to Professor H. L. Ewbank, also of the University of Wisconsin, for helpful suggestions; to my wife, Hazel Robinson Lahman, for constant encouragement; and to a host of students for the privilege of working and learning with them.

C. P. Lahman

Kalamazoo
August, 1930

CHAPTER I

WHY DEBATE?

I. The Rise Of Contest Debating

II. What Gains From Debating?

- A. Training in Straight Thinking and Original Thinking
- B. Open-mindedness
- C. Thorough Study of an Interesting, Worth-while Question
- D. Training in Public Speaking
- E. Good Sportsmanship
- F. Preparation for After-school Activities

III. The True Nature Of Contest Debating

I. The Rise of Contest Debating

Although oral argumentation is as old as human discourse and even in antiquity had definitely formulated principles to govern its conduct, formal contest debating between educational institutions is comparatively new, the first such intercollegiate contest having been held between Harvard and Yale in 1892.[1]

Since then there has been a great development, along with a new and vital emphasis on speech training in general. Not many years ago debate clubs flourished in every college, and in country school-houses earnest young men held forth on controversial public questions, to the delight and enthusiastic acclaim of admiring neighbors. Though these activities have waned, interscholastic and intercollegiate debating has never had so great a vogue as today.

[1] From article A Chapter on the Organization of College Courses in Public Speaking, by Thomas C. Trueblood, Professor Emeritus of Public Speaking, University of Michigan. *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education.* 12:5. February, 1926.

II. What Gains From Debating?

Are these debates held merely for school advertising and because they offer another opportunity for indulging inter-school rivalry? These motives are undoubtedly present, but in themselves they cannot justify the time and labor and money expended. Indeed if participation in interscholastic contests in any sort of speech work means the crowding out of intramural activities and of class work in speech whereby the many rather than the few star performers profit, then the emphasis, most educators would agree, is clearly wrong. However, it is often true that these contests so motivate speech work in the high school that there is increased demand for and interest in class instruction.

What then are the attributes and benefits of debate that warrant its inclusion among the activities of high school and college? They have been listed and discussed so often that only brief treatment is necessary here. It of course is understood that these advantages come from *good* debating, and that usually means competent faculty direction, though, as will be indicated later, such direction can be overdone.

A. *Training in Straight Thinking and Original Thinking*

No student, be he in high school or college, can study and discuss a debate subject for several weeks or months without in some measure learning to sort the important from the trivial, to reject the superficial and fallacious, to have a better understanding of what constitutes sound reasoning on his own part and that of others. At the same time he learns to analyze and synthesize arguments and points of view with some originality. Says John Stuart Mill in his *Autobiography*: "I have always dated from these conversations [in a discussion group similar

to the ideal debate squad meeting] my own inauguration as an original and independent thinker."[2]

B. *Open-mindedness*

The debater must study both sides of his question. Again quoting Mill: "No man understands his own side until he understands the other side." Despite the fact that training in debate should make for open-mindedness, it is unfortunately true that we sometimes find debaters who are opinionated and contentious. Hence there arises the criticism that contest debating is unscientific in that a debater starts out with a ready-made viewpoint; he is either "affirmative" or "negative" and so bends all his energies, not to discovering the truth, but to "proving" his side of the proposition.

It must be admitted that there is some justification for this criticism. At the same time, the condition at which it is levelled is not a necessary accompaniment of debating. If the student carefully canvasses his own mind and reads as widely as possible before deciding on the side of the question he wishes to uphold, then his attitude is not an unscientific one, but quite the reverse.

It should be noted, too, that there is a definite tendency, even in formal debating, to get away from the unyielding, pugnacious attitude of insisting that you are all right and your opponent is all wrong. Throughout this book runs a plea for encouragement of that tendency. "Cooperative controversy" is the term used in a recent book,[3] and a happy phrase it is. Not merely in so-called discussion, which is considered in the next chapter, but in all forms of debating, there can be more of reasonable commonsense yielding, admitting, cooperating. Debaters need not make of their activity a martial exploit of clouting each other with broadswords. As a

[2] John Stuart Mill. *Autobiography.* p. 86. Columbia University Press. New York. 1924.

[3] Celian Ufford. *Training for College Speakers.* p. 213. Expression Company. Boston. 1928.

game it will not suffer in interest if the controversy becomes less antagonistic and more cooperative.

However, if a student is found who has deep-laid convictions on a question, such as prohibition, pacifism, imperialism, for example, and after studying both sides feels that there is only one side that he can honestly uphold, then, in the writer's opinion, he should not be asked to argue, *before a public audience,* the side he does not believe. Even if the moral issue be waived, the chances are that he will not carry conviction when speaking for the side he thoroughly disbelieves.

The case is quite different for practice debates in preliminary squad preparation, for there no moral issue is involved as relates to dishonestly influencing an audience, and the necessity of developing a case for the side one does not believe, as already pointed out, means valuable training for the debater.

C. *Thorough Study of an Interesting, Worth-while Question*

What constitutes a good debate question will receive consideration in Chapter III, but it may be pointed out here that too often questions are used that are entirely outside the interest and experience of those who must debate them. This is particularly true, of course, in high schools. As Philip M. Hicks of Swarthmore College points out, "The thorough investigation of an important public problem acquires value with the assimilation, not the mere collection, of the materials of proof." [4]

D. *Training in Public Speaking*

This training, motivated as classroom instruction seldom can be, offers increasing genuineness and usefulness as memorized speaking is abandoned and the extempore method adopted.

[4] A. M. Drummond, ed. *Speech Training and Public Speaking for Secondary Schools.* p. 176. Century. New York. 1925.

E. *Good Sportsmanship*

Although there is still plenty of room for the development of this attitude on the part of both coaches and debaters, it is patent, since contest debating is a game, that when it is engaged in properly it offers the same sort of training in good sportsmanship commonly accredited to athletics. Perhaps the training is even more severe in the forensic field, for opportunities for subtly unsportsman-like conduct are even greater than in athletics.

F. *Preparation for After-school Activities*

The following quotation from Alexander Meiklejohn, formerly president of Amherst College, is so fitting that I let it speak for itself:

> If we view college life fairly, we can not fail to take account of the constantly repeated statement of graduates that they count certain "activities" as having been of far greater educational value than the studies given and taken in the classroom. I am sure that this statement contains more of falsity than of truth. But there is a truth in it, and it behooves us to isolate it and look it squarely in the face. . .
>
> As I look back on my own experience of teaching and disciplining, I seem to see what these graduates mean. I see it most clearly when I try to single out from the long line of students one group which shall stand forth as intellectually the best—best in college work and best in promise of future intellectual achievement. Much as I should like to do so, I cannot draw the line round my own favorite students in philosophy, nor the leaders in mathematics, nor those successful in biology; nor could I fairly award the palm to the Phi Beta Kappa men who have excelled in all their subjects. It seems to me that stronger than any other group, tougher in intellectual fiber, keener in intellectual interest, better equipped to battle with coming problems, are the college debaters—the boys, who, apart from their regular studies, band themselves together for intellectual controversy with each other and with their friends in other colleges."[5]

[5] *The Liberal College.* p. 102-3. Quoted by permission of the publishers, Marshall Jones Company, Boston.

III. The True Nature of Contest Debating

So much for the characteristics of debating that make it a valuable educational activity. *Poor* debating has often been criticized; two major objections have already been considered. Others, dealing largely with the alleged uninterestingness and artificiality of forensic contests, will be answered, directly or indirectly, later. The point is that all of these objections are seen to be more apparent than real when the true nature of contest debating is understood.

A debate is a contest, and so a game. At the same time it should be an intelligent, interesting discussion of a live question. As both these things it possesses definite educational values.

Again I quote from Professor Hicks of Swarthmore College, who puts the matter so well in his article on *The New Spirit in Debating* in the syllabus prepared under the direction of the National Association of Teachers of Speech.

> In recognizing the necessity of discipline as a part of the business of preparation for life we have been too prone to overlook the fact that discipline can be gained as well in the pursuit of a desired as of a required end. When students engage willingly in an activity which, like debate, requires application, thought, and expression, it is possible to emphasize these values without seeming to do so, with the resulting advantage that the lesson will seem self-taught. . . When it [debating] is so organized that educational values are sacrificed to the mere winning of decisions, it forfeits its claim to academic support. *It should be possible to preserve both the sport and the educational values without compromising either.* . . [Italics mine].
>
> If the natural joy in discussion is to be preserved in debating, the freedom and naturalness which make discussion a pleasure must be, as far as possible, maintained. . . If debate is to continue a sport, it must remain a free expression of opinion and of the grounds to that opinion. Too often it becomes

a mere catalog of reasons for opinion upon a subject that does not in any real sense enter into the consciousness of the speaker. . .

Not knowledge but thought is the end of education. Educational values lie not so much in knowledge of subjects in themselves as in the processes of investigation, judgment, and expression by which the debater strives to win an audience to his opinion. This end can be attained only when the student is working with material which is of genuine interest both to himself and to his audience. The discussion of such a question, if engaged in voluntarily, enlists the earnestness and enthusiasm of the student in an effort to learn and weigh the facts, to balance evidence, and to make the results of his own thoughts clear and interesting to others. Those are truly educational values.[6]

Throughout the following pages an earnest attempt is made to keep the discussion concrete and practical as well as theoretically sound. Special emphasis, sometimes expressed, sometimes implied, is laid everywhere upon the importance of the audience, in choosing the question, gathering material, constructing outlines, in reasoning, in refutation, in delivery of the speech. Debating is *applied* logic and *applied* persuasion, facts which too often have been lost sight of in treatises on argumentation and debate.

[6] A. M. Drummond, ed. *Speech Training and Public Speaking for Secondary Schools.* p. 174-7. Century. New York. 1925. Quoted by permission of the National Association of Teachers of Speech.

CHAPTER II

TYPES OF DEBATE[1]

I. What Is A Typical Debate?
II. Recent Modifications
III. Decision By Judges
  A. A Board of Judges
  B. A Single Critic Judge
IV. Audience Decision
  A. Vote On the Debating
  B. Vote On the Question
V. The Decisionless Debate
VI. The Open Forum
VII. The Split Team
VIII. The Oregon Plan
IX. The Legislative Debate
X. Individual Discussion
XI. The Three-sided Debate
XII. The English Style of Debate
XIII. The Twenty-four Hour Debate
XIV. Debates On Neutral Floors
XV. The Floor Debate
XVI. Summary

I. What is A Typical Debate?

In the typical college or high school debate, as we think of it, a definite matter-of-fact proposition dealing with the institution of a new policy is under discussion. Examples of this sort of proposition on which con-

[1] Attention is called to Appendix V, *A Manual Survey of High School Debating* and to Appendix VI, *A Survey of Intercollegiate Debating* in the Middle West for interesting facts on the present status of representative institutions in handling contest debates.

siderable factual material is available, are: "Resolved, that the United States should recognize the present Soviet government of Russia," "Resolved, that a judge or a board of judges should be substituted for the jury in all criminal trials in the United States."

Discussing this question are two teams of three members each. Each member is allowed ten or twelve minutes for the presentation of his constructive argument and, after the constructive speeches are finished, is allowed five or seven minutes for rebuttal.

When the debate is over, a decision is rendered by three judges, or possibly one, *as to which team has won.*

II. Recent Modifications

The last few years have seen the rise of numerous variants in the arrangements and the style of debating, induced by a desire for variety, for greater participation on the part of the audience, or for the remedying of weaknesses and abuses in prevailing forms.

To hold the attention of the audience, speeches are often reduced in number or length. For six speakers each to have a ten minute and a five minute speech means an hour and a half of actual speaking, which is quite long enough. Consequently, twelve minute speeches, though still used, are not considered very desirable.

Speeches are frequently reduced in number by cutting the team to two members or by having only one rebuttal speech. The first arrangement is especially common in the West where distances between schools are great. The total time consumed in a debate may or may not be less than when six people speak. If the debate is shortened, each speaker usually has about twelve minutes for his main speech and six minutes for his rebuttal. The objection to the two-man team is that such an arrangement necessarily limits the total number of students participating.

Similarly, there is a drawback to having only one rebuttal speech, for ability in rebuttal is commonly considered the best earmark of good debating. Each member of the team, most coaches feel, should have the training that rebuttal gives and should be forced to show what he can do. As we adopt a style of debating that is increasingly extemporaneous, there will doubtless be more and more rebuttal material in the main speeches, thus making separate rebuttal speeches less essential.

Numerous other departures from the so-called typical debate are indicated in the following pages.

The most inclusive division of types is on the basis of how they are judged. Following a discussion of judged, audience-decision, and decisionless debates, various other types, which can be classified under one or another of these three headings, will be treated.

III. Decision by Judges

A. *A Board of Judges*

The decision rendered by three persons has been, until the last few years, the most common of the various forms of judging a debate. There was a time when the judges retired for consultation at the conclusion of the debate, but of late years this feature has been done away with, and now each judge casts his vote for the affirmative or negative purely on the basis of his own judgment.

Although the qualifications of a debate judge are taken up later, it should be pointed out here that the persons making up the judging group should know what constitutes good contest debating, for that is what they are there to judge. Three intelligent, honest citizens are not, *ipso facto,* good debate judges.

Sometimes more than three judges are used, but such an arrangement is not common. It goes without saying that the number should always be odd.

B. *A Single Critic Judge*

Because it was hard to assemble three competent judges who knew the elements of good debating and who could lay aside their prejudices on the questions discussed, the scheme was devised of having but one judge. This arrangement is now used very widely, especially among colleges.

It is obvious that if the decision as to which team has done the better debating is to be left entirely to one man, he must be a real expert, trained to evaluate content and presentation and able to lay aside personal bias.

Proponents of the single-judge system point out certain advantages. Personal views on the question are much less likely to influence the vote. The judge, since the entire decision rests on him, takes his task more seriously than when he is merely one of three. This is especially true when, in a few remarks to the audience at the close of the contest, he states the reasons for his vote. This oral explanation enlightens the audience, too often hopelessly in the dark, as to why one team or the other has really won the decision, and it tends to educate the public on what makes good debating. In addition to his public explanation, the critic judge is expected to meet the teams and coaches afterwards and go over the debate in detail.

Still another argument advanced in behalf of the single-judge arrangement is the fact that it is less expensive. It is now commonly agreed that debate judges should receive a fee for their services in addition to reimbursement for expenses, it apparently having finally dawned on administrators that it requires some slight time and ability to judge a forensic as well as an athletic contest. Such being the case, it often involves less outlay to pay the expenses of one thoroughly competent judge plus a liberal fee than to pay the expenses of three less competent judges plus a smaller fee to each.

Though these arguments are admittedly valid, there are many who still favor the three-judge system, holding that it is not necessarily a case of one expert versus three incompetents. When a question of social policy is being discussed, they say, a decision is an uncertain thing at best, for the human equation is so potent in deciding how to vote. If a decision is sought at all, let the method not be one that leaves the whole matter in the hands of one individual. In a word, better three experts than one.

IV. Audience Decision

The device of asking the audience to vote is inspired by a desire to make the hearers more active participants in the discussion and thus to render the whole speech situation more genuine and stimulating for both speakers and listeners. Most critics will agree that though it has defects, it does possess this very definite merit.

A. *Vote On The Debating*

Once in a while we hear of a debate in which the audience is asked to vote at the close as to which team has done the better debating. Unless the audience is a highly specialized one, such as a group of college debaters—in which case neither of the teams debating should represent the institution in question—an audience decision on the merits of the debating is valueless. A school or home-town audience is pretty sure to be prejudiced for the home team and in addition is not qualified to judge contest debating. If the debate is staged on a so-called neutral floor, though the audience may not be prejudiced toward one team or the other, it is usually even less qualified to pass on the merits of the debating.

B. *Vote On The Question*

The usual method of securing a so-called audience decision is to have members of the audience indicate

whether their views on the question have been changed by the discussion. This may be done in various ways, but the best method is to use printed ballots. One type provides for marking both before and after the debate, the other simply for voting afterwards. For explanation of how audience ballots are tabulated see Chapter VII.

These ballots may or may not be used to decide which side "won." The shifts of opinion are interesting, and they may be significant, depending on the audience. To make shifts of opinion determine which team won in a debate on prohibition before the average church audience would probably be folly. Opinions are too thoroughly established, and counter arguments would be minimized while supporting arguments would be magnified. On the other hand, shifts of opinion might be quite significant in a debate on the direct primary before a Kiwanis Club. It is interesting to note, as Professor Woodward of Western Reserve University points out, that in ninety-four debates where both judge and audience votes were used the record shows sixty agreements between audience and judge, as compared with only thirty-four disagreements.[2]

Even in this type of audience voting there is a chance for "loading," though there is little danger of that before a neutral audience. A team supporter may vote before the debate for a position contrary to that upheld by "his" team so that he can vote for its position at the close—and this regardless of his own views. However, it is not usually difficult to educate even student audiences to play the game fairly.

Naturally the question for debate makes a difference as to how well the audience participates in voting. A group of farmers would vote eagerly on the McNary-

[2] From article Measurement and Analysis of Audience Opinion, by Howard S. Woodward, *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 13:97, February, 1918. Those who are interested in audience voting will find some interesting tabulations and conclusions in this article based upon a large number of contests.

Haugen farm relief bill; on the cancellation of Allied debts they might hesitate. As Professor Woodward says:

> Audience opinion is an elusive thing. Shy at times, at times graciously pliable and accommodating; sometimes stolidly indifferent, emotionally effervescent sometimes; sometimes vociferous and belligerent; intelligent; informed, and self-expressive, or uninformed and averse to exposing its ignorance; generally revealing a high state of inertia when asked to use pencils as well as minds. [3]

The results should be tabulated as quickly as possible, so that they can be announced before the audience leaves. Since an open forum is usually combined with this type of debate, it is often possible to do the tabulating while the forum is being conducted. The ballots will be found to be much clearer, too, if considerable care is taken before the debate to explain carefully just what the audience is to do. The chairman may give the explanation or turn the task over to someone else more familiar with the details.

Whether audience voting is used to determine decisions or whether it is used merely to vitalize the discussion and secure greater participation on the part of the audience, it can be agreed that on the whole it attains the latter goal. And right there, in the writer's mind, lies a danger, perhaps not serious, but still a danger. The greater communicativeness and adaptability that speakers will tend to develop when asking for an audience's vote may degenerate into cheap popular appeal and the submersion of straight facing of facts. Effective persuasion has too often been lacking in American debating, but care must be taken lest in our desire to become persuaders we become demagogues.

Despite its possible dangers, audience-voting has many virtues and much promise. Professor Woodward's conclusion puts it well:

[3] Ibid. p. 94.

The popular hypothesis that opinion on public questions is generally poorly grounded must be accompanied by the hypothesis that usually there is not strong conviction in these opinions, except as emotional urges come into play. Speakers of all sorts, even college debaters, then, should be expected to cause considerable change in the attitude of their hearers. They may even do their audiences a service of enlightenment. The shift-of-opinion ballot seems to offer a technique that may yet throw some light on the problem of how best to perform this service." [4]

V. The Decisionless Debate

This type is largely self-explanatory. Constructive and rebuttal speeches are given as usual, followed customarily by an open forum, but not by a decision from judge or audience.

A large number of colleges use this style of debate either exclusively or in part. The argument is that decisions make for stiffness and artificiality, encourage unsportsmanlike tactics, and in general defeat the educational ends of debate. By doing away with the decision—whether by judge or audience—the discussion is made more genuinely a "thinking together" on a public question, with consequent value to both speakers and hearers.

On the other hand it is argued that most discussions in real life are aimed at securing, and are followed by, a decision of some sort, that no-decision debating leads to careless preparation, that the rendering of a decision gives greater zest to the contest for both audience and participants, and that school audiences fall off where decisions are given up.

Here again, it should be pointed out that audiences alter cases. In a recent debate before a radical audience at the Labor Temple in St. Paul on our Latin American policy, two college teams had a most enjoyable evening without a decision of any sort. An audience decision

[4] Ibid. p. 109.

would have been meaningless, and it could not have improved on the rapt attention given the speakers. A decision by a critic judge would have bored the audience and perhaps have been misunderstood.

A good chairman is indispensable for a decisionless debate whether or not an open forum follows, for otherwise the whole affair will be left up in the air and everyone will feel unsatisfied.

VI. The Open Forum

The open forum may be used with almost any style of debate, though it is most commonly combined with the decisionless and audience-decision types. The open forum simply provides that when the formal discussion is finished, members of the audience may ask questions of the speakers or make brief comments on the topic under discussion.

Such an arrangement tends to make the audience take greater interest in the whole discussion and so makes it a more genuine affair. Needless to say, it furnishes a real test for the debaters to face and answer such cross-questioning. When the proposition is a thoroughly live one, the open forum may prove to be more enlightening and exciting than the formal argument.

To be successful, however, certain requirements must be met. As just indicated, the question should be one in which the audience will have real interest aroused by the preceding discussion. There must be a good chairman—quick and fair, with a sense of humor. To him all questions are directed. Questions and comments on the part of the audience must be short and pointed. Conversely, answers must be short and straightforward, with no attempt to equivocate. Often admissions can be made then that, from the standpoint of strategy, would be ill-advised in the formal debate. A final requisite for a successful open forum is that it must not be allowed to drag. Since people are usually a bit

reticent about starting the discussion, it is a good plan to have a few in the audience primed in advance to start off with pertinent questions.

VII. The Split Team

Here we have another attempt to prevent rigidity in organization and presentation and to counteract prejudice for the home team. The mechanics is simply this. Suppose high schools A and B are going to debate at B. Each school may have been working on the question for some time. Prior to the debate, perhaps an hour or longer, one of A's debaters meets with two of B's debaters and the three constitute a team. Similarly, one of B's men and two of A's make up the other team. The respective sides are usually agreed upon previously.

In the ensuing debate, high school A does not oppose high school B. Each school is represented on each team. It is possible, of course, to have equal division of team members by having just two on a team, one from A and one from B.

The device of the split-team practically guarantees extempore debating and is an interesting exercise now and then. It will probably never have a wide vogue as an exclusive type, for it does not adapt itself to decision debating, and unity and team work are apt to be weak.

A decision can be secured even here, if it seems imperative, by having judges give percentages to individual speakers and then totaling grades for the three representatives of each school. Or, since there is no "home" team, a student audience may vote as to which is the better team.

VIII. The Oregon Plan[5]

Another name which might be applied to this type is the cross-question debate, but it is better known as

[5] Cf. article Dialectic—A Neglected Method of Argument, by E. L. Hunt. *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education.* 7:211ff. June, 1921.

the Oregon plan inasmuch as it was originated at the University of Oregon about 1925.

Writing in the *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education* for April, 1926, J. Stanley Gray points out that the Oregon plan was devised "to get away from the decision debate and its attending evils, and yet to escape the above mentioned fault of the no-decision debate"—that of slipshod preparation.

The new plan is explained and supported by Professor Gray as follows:

1. The first affirmative speaker presents the entire affirmative case in a speech of twenty minutes length.

2. The first negative speaker presents the entire negative case in a speech of twenty minutes length.

3. The first affirmative speaker returns to the platform and is cross-questioned concerning his case by the second negative speaker. This period is ten minutes in length. The questioner is in charge and the answers must be short and definite. The chairman is the final authority in any dispute regarding the relevancy of questions, the completeness and definiteness of answers, the interpretation of the resolution, etc.

4. The first negative speaker returns to the platform and is similarly cross-questioned by the second affirmative speaker.

5. The second negative speaker is then given ten minutes to refute the arguments of the affirmative case and to summarize the debate for his side.

6. The second affirmative speaker is given ten minutes for similar refutation and summary.

The entire length of the debate is one hour and twenty minutes. These periods can be altered as desired but we have found them to be very satisfactory with time allotted as above.

In this method, which we have called the "Oregon plan" for want of a better name, we have combined all the benefits of both the decision and the no-decision debate and yet we have retained none of the evils. We have no judge prejudice; no overemphasis of winning; no refusal of a debater to admit a fact because it may cause him to lose a judge's vote; no sacrificing of the welfare of the student for the sake of a winning a debate; no dry academic and technical speeches; and finally, no shirking in preparation. This period of cross-questioning is sufficient

stimulus for thorough preparation. Aside from the first two speeches, memorized speaking is impossible. The debater must learn to adjust himself and his ideas to the new situations which every debate presents.[7]

When the foregoing article was written, experience had been limited to two-man teams, a common arrangement in the West, and doubt is expressed whether the plan can be used with three on a team. It is quite likely that the smaller number is better, but various arrangements can be made for more or less successful adaptation to three-man teams. As an illustration, Western State Teachers College and Carroll College staged such a debate in the spring of 1928, on protection of American foreign investments. Three ten-minute affirmative and three ten-minute negative speeches were given as usual. Then, instead of the usual rebuttals, one negative speaker cross-examined the whole affirmative team for ten minutes, followed by a similar cross-examination of the negative team by one member of the affirmative. In conclusion, first a negative and then an affirmative speaker (not those who did the cross-questioning) used five minutes each to summarize.

Whether in original form or modified in any one of various ways, the Oregon plan has interesting possibilities. Not the least of its requirements is the possession of considerable shrewdness and the ability to follow up significant questions and answers on the part of the cross-examiners. A certain number of possible questions, and even series of questions, may profitably be worked out more or less definitely in advance, but the most satisfactory results will be obtained if technical and legalistic questions are avoided.

IX. The Heckling Debate

A similar type that has been tried in some cases and one that has possibilities for practice purposes, is the

[7] The Oregon Plan of Debating. *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education.* 12:178-9. April, 1926.

heckling debate. Here, under certain pre-arranged conditions, team members may interrupt opposing speakers at any time, to demand proof or evidence or to challenge reasoning. Although such an arrangement is good training for the control of temper, a good deal of time is apt to be consumed and the audience may be confused in following the cases.

X. Individual Discussion

Perhaps some one can propose a better name for this type of contest. To its maximum success an open forum actively participated in by the audience is essential. The suggestion is that it is desirable to avoid the rigidity imposed by a set proposition and by team organization and that the real purpose of public discussion will be better attained by having a form of round-table discussion, in which representatives of two or more schools participate. The significant differences from the ordinary debate are that each participant contributes as an individual and that the subject for discussion may be a several-sided topic instead of a two-sided proposition.

We are dealing here with the so-called discussion method of crystallizing group thought. It is urged by its proponents[8] that the various participants, by give-and-take discussion, finally arrive at a so-called "consensus," which is neither majority domination nor compromise, but rather an harmonious composite of individual views.

Instead of "debating" the proposition that the Federal Government should develop the principal sources of hydro-electric power still in its control, under this system speakers would "discuss," each from his own viewpoint, what ought to be done as to the future of electric power generation in the United States. Out of several

[8] Cf. Alfred Dwight Sheffield. *Joining in Public Discussion.* 1922. *Training for Group Experience.* 1929. Mary Follett. *Creative Experience.* H. A. Overstreet. *Influencing Human Behavior.* Harrison S. Elliott. *The Process of Group Thinking.*

speakers on the platform and in the audience, no two might agree exactly when they started, but at the close, provided the proper "discussion" attitude was maintained, they would be considerably nearer agreement, and the audience would be more intelligently informed and actively interested then if the two teams had limited themselves to two aspects of the question.

Such are the claims for the discussion method in group conference. A. Craig Baird, in a concise and stimulating treatment of group discussion, points out its limitations:

> Where the issue becomes sharply drawn, as it almost always does in legislatures, court rooms, or on the political platform, group discussion must give way to debate. Majorities must be determined; noses must be counted. Otherwise deadlocks and stagnation would follow. Because our democracy must get on, we cannot linger during the months or years that might be necessary for a group to arrive at a consensus of opinion regarding the issue. As a preliminary to formal debate and as a device to be used where sharp differences of opinion and prejudice may not develop, the group discussion is of great value.[9]

That this plan of discussion is not merely theoretical is shown by the fact that the Indiana High School Discussion League is built upon this very idea. The constitution of the league is given in Appendix XI.

The individual discussion, despite certain weaknesses and dangers, has possibilities of genuiness, possibilities so alluring that it should be experimented with, if not between different schools, then within the squad and between teams from the squad before outside audiences. It should lack at least some of the contentiousness and refusal to yield that are too often found in ordinary contest debating.

As in the case of the ordinary open forum, a chairman who stimulates the discussion attitude, directs the thinking, and summarizes progress from time to time is essential.

[9] A. Craig Baird. *Public Discussion and Debate.* p.33-4. Ginn & Company. 1928. Quoted by permission of the author.

XI. The Three-Sided Debate

This is a variant to which little attention need be given. There are times when a question has not two sides but three or more, as, for example, three alternative solutions for a given problem. Then why not have a discussion of all three from the same platform? Suppose the Federal Government is in a position to build a deep waterway from the Great Lakes to the sea. Shall it be by way of the St. Lawrence river, the New York barge canal, or the Illinois-Mississippi river to the Gulf? Why not have three speakers discuss the problem?

This type of discussion, usually with no opportunity for rejoinder however, is used not uncommonly in certain magazines preceding a presidential election. Why not extend it to the rostrum?

Though this type of debate has complications for intercollegiate or interscholastic contests, they are not serious. For class and intramural work it has real and interesting possibilities.

XII. The English Style of Debate

For the last six or seven years debating teams from British universities have made annual trips to the United States, staging forensic contests with numerous American colleges and universities. Oxford and Cambridge have been the most frequent visitors, but there are also composite teams, made up of representatives from three British universities. Australia has sent two teams, and Canadian universities are also taking up the movement. The visit of an English-speaking German team is announced for 1930-1931.

The visits of the British teams have been returned by a very few colleges in the United States, for facilities abroad are limited for holding intercollegiate contests. In 1927-1928 the University of Oregon sent a team

round the world and a few months later Bates College of Maine engaged in an equally pretentious enterprise.

Arrangements for much of the international debating are now handled by the National Student Federation of the United States of America, 218 Madison Avenue, New York City.

Those who have heard any of these international debates have been struck by the differences between them and the ordinary contest debate in the United States. A difference of mechanics usually, depending on the wish of the particular American school, but a greater difference of atmosphere and general attitude. The proposition for debate was probably rather unusual, philosophical rather than factual, for the Englishman abominates statistics in a public address. Perhaps there were no rigid time limits and only one or two rebuttal speeches, refutation being blended in the main speeches as points arose. The Englishmen spoke very deliberately, using an easy, conversational style that tended to persuade rather than convince. There was wit and humor throughout to keep the whole discussion entertaining as well as instructive. There may or may not have been an audience vote and an open forum.

Why is it that men from British universities debate so differently from their American cousins? Largely because of the great difference in training. The following paragraph from an article by Professor A. Craig Baird, formerly of Bates and now of the University of Iowa, is illuminating.

> The Oxford Union Society, from whose members the team in America was selected, is a literary-social club founded a century ago, the most important and famous of the numerous Oxonian societies; it includes several hundred students from the twenty-odd colleges. The Union, with the presiding officer's dais, the benches for the government and the opposition, the party leaders, and the "aye" and "no" exits, duplicates the House of Commons. Each of the four speakers for the evening is assigned to the side that represents his convictions. He wears

evening dress and takes his subject seriously. With little or no reference to his colleague he gives his individual argument, usually some fifteen minutes long. If he persists, no bell shuts him off. A polite note from the secretary may remind him of the time. He follows no formal brief, reproduces no carefully wrought manuscript. The constant heckling may inspire him to unexpected power in argument. He tries to be natural, informal, conversational; he scores with his wit, invective, and persuasiveness, more than with statistics and frowning evidence. No stiff-necked judges pass on the "merits of the debate." The aim is to establish conviction rather than to gain a technical decision; to arrive at the truth rather than to play a game. An open forum, with perhaps fifteen or twenty speeches from the floor, follows. Finally, not long before midnight, the three or four hundred members divide and vote on the merits of the question, usually a problem of national or international policy. Thus the British system is a judgeless, open-forum, parliamentary discussion rather than a competitive sport,—not entirely dissimilar to the open forum debates with which American universities of the Middle West have experimented. In his purpose, style, and delivery the Oxford collegian thus differs sharply from the conventional American debater.[10]

Few American debaters get any such vital, invigorating training as this, especially since the decline of "literary" societies. But the difference extends further than to forensic practice. It goes back to the educational systems of the two countries. It is well known that the English boy when he enters the university has a far better general-culture background than do boys entering American colleges. Not only that; the cultural emphasis is continued throughout the university course. Independent thinking is encouraged by a system of instruction that varies widely from ours in the United States, where we insist on text absorption, assigned readings, and compulsory class attendance. Furthermore, the older British universities have commonly been regarded as training schools for Parliament and the public service,

[10] From article Shall American Universities Adopt the British System of Debating? *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education.* 9:215-16. June, 1923.

and this tradition naturally leads to an interest in the discussion of public affairs. And finally, formal contest debating is practically unknown abroad. Discussion, as indicated by Professor Baird, is between individuals rather than between teams.

Among the many propositions that have been used in international debates in this country these are illustrative:

That this house is opposed to the principle of prohibition.

That democracy has failed.

That the world has more to fear than to hope from science.

That co-education is a failure.

That the radio should be a public monopoly.

That the popular reading of psychology is injurious to public morals.

In this country there are strong admirers and advocates of the English style of debating; there are also those who can see little of value in it. The view is gradually prevailing, however, that, as usual, the truth lies somewhere between the two extremes. Already American debating has been definitely affected, perhaps for both good and ill. We are realizing that English debating cannot simply be grafted *in toto* onto an entirely different background with any hope of real success. Very few American college students, to say nothing of high school pupils, can discuss with penetration or originality broad philosophical questions. That is, our college students cannot do it so easily in either content or manner as can English university men. That does not mean they should not try. The English style of question calls forth more exercise of original thinking than the investigation of many a more definite question. Then by all means let us use both methods.

Already American teams are doing it, within the same institution and with other institutions. Let us

emulate the ease, the informality, the originality, the interestingness of the English debaters and thank them for the lesson.

On the other hand, let us avoid the glib superficiality, the sweeping generalizations, the attempts at humor substituted for substance that even they sometimes exhibit. With all its faults, American debating has had a wholesome insistence on thorough-going preparation and on respect for evidence. These values and those inherent in the English style are not incompatible.

The greatest value in the visit of foreign teams has not been mentioned. It is the cultural value for both Americans and British of having direct, friendly contacts between the young men and women of the various nations. Not even the most hostile critic of debating methods would decry these returns.

XIII. The Twenty-Four Hour Debate

In the twenty-four hour debate the exact proposition for discussion is not known by either team until approximately a day in advance of the contest. There are various ways in which it may be chosen.

1. There may have been previous agreement on a general topic, such as crime, prohibition, farm relief, or war, and the specific proposition built on the topic formulated a day in advance of the debate. The proposition may be formulated by the interested coaches or by a disinterested third party. Sides are determined by lot.

2. Several such topics, or propositions, may have been agreed upon earlier, and one is chosen by lot a day in advance.

3. Without previous agreement, each team or faculty director may submit a certain number of propositions twenty-four hours in advance. One is chosen perhaps by the coach at a disinterested third school, and lots are drawn for sides.

4. A third party may set the question without the previous knowledge of either team, and again, lot-drawing determines sides.

After the proposition is settled, the teams have the time intervening before the debate to read and prepare.

Briefly, the advantages are interesting variety and publicity in the debate schedule, avoidance of uninteresting formality, and the practical assurance of an extemporaneous, adaptable style of discussion.

The disadvantages are those of incoherence, lack of unity, and superficiality.

It is self-evident that the proposition chosen should not be too specific, for the short period for preparation precludes the possibility of swallowing many exact facts and figures, to say nothing of digesting them. The general nature of the debate renders of doubtful wisdom the use of judges.

XIV. Debates on Neutral Floors[11]

The debate on a neutral floor is not a type in the sense of those previously discussed, for almost any sort of debate may be held on a neutral floor. It has often been felt that even when judges are used the home team has an advantage, especially if the audience is enthusiastic. Hence the staging of the contest before an outside audience—Rotary club, church, high school, *et cetera.*

Even stronger reasons for the development of this scheme are the fact that it is often easier to take the debate to a ready-made audience than to bring an audience to the debate, as many a debate coach will testify, and the value of giving debaters a chance to discuss a public question before a group of people who are interested in hearing it discussed.

It is not necessary to have all these debates with opponents from other schools; many colleges send out

[11] Cf. Raymond F. Howes. Finding Debate Audiences. *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education.* 11:364-8. November, 1925.

two teams from their own squads, often preparing special questions to meet local problems and interests. Naturally, some questions are more pertinent and of greater interest than others. For example, scores, and perhaps hundreds, of debates were held before deeply interested rural audiences on the McNary-Haugen farm relief bill during the school year 1926-1927. The next year the Latin-American policy of the United States was particularly timely, since the Pan-American Congress was meeting during the winter at Havana. Similarly, in 1930, discussions of disarmament attracted wide attention because of the London Conference.

Among the pioneers in this movement of taking Mahomet to the mountain, Western Reserve University of Cleveland and the University of Pittsburgh have been especially active.

The colleges of Wisconsin stage all of the debates between themselves before high schools and feel that it is a very successful arrangement. The hearing of good college debates should stimulate debating among high school students, and from the standpoint of the colleges it probably serves as desirable publicity. There are some dangers in a high school assembly at which attendance is compulsory; at the same time it imposes a real test on the speaker's ability to hold an audience's attention by adapting his material and style of presentation to its needs. Under such circumstances the debate should be shortened from the conventional hour and a half by reducing the number of speakers, by shortening the speeches, or by eliminating some rebuttal speeches.

Nothing has been said specifically as to what high schools can do with this plan. I see no reason why they cannot use it too, with the almost inevitable result that in the interest of audience attention high school debaters will get away from memorized speeches into a more genuine type of thinking and speaking.

XV. The Floor Debate

The floor debate is mentioned last because it is not a contest form, but for training in genuine public discussion it is excelled by few other forms. The floor debate is simply discussion carried on in a group where there is a chairman to whom remarks are addressed. Ordinary parliamentary decorum is observed and there is an admirable opportunity for informal give-and-take discussion. All sorts of questions can and should be used, particularly school and community topics that have local interest and require original investigation. It should be widely employed in every high school in English and social science classes, as well as in the speech class and the debate squad.

XVI. Summary

There is no perfect type of debate or system of debating. All have merits, all have weaknesses. Then why be wedded to any one style? Within the class, the school, the squad, the interscholastic or intercollegiate schedule, try out the critic judge, the no-decision debate, the open forum, the split-team. Vary the number of speakers, the length of the speeches, the rebuttal arrangements. Even the forms discussed in this chapter do not exhaust the possibilities. Numerous are the combinations and variations that can be tried if there seems good reason for doing so. Even the high school in a league with set rules can have other contests outside the league. All can certainly have informal floor debates to give something of the training that the Oxford Union gives.

Perhaps some sort of decision is more important in high school than in college, even though it be in terms only of audience shifts of opinion, for at the high school age an interscholastic debate without a decision is hardly distinguishable from a football game without a score.

But whether in college or secondary school, we can all set our faces against debating *merely* for decisions, and can view new forms with interest and try them when opportunity offers—to the end that contest debating may become increasingly valuable to participants and hearers and education in general.

CHAPTER III

COACHING: SOME PRELIMINARIES

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II. The Great Dilemma: Winning Versus Training

III. How Much Should The Coach Do?

IV. Choosing The Question
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VI. Selecting The Squad
- A. When Should the Squad be Chosen?
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I. Who Should Act as Coach

In any high school, normal school, college, or university there ought, of course, to be some one who is teaching argumentation and debate as an academic subject. Such a person ought to

serve as the supervisor, or director, or coach of the debating teams of that institution. In such a situation, probably most of the members of the team have studied argumentation as an academic subject and are familiar with the principles of argumentation and debate and have had some experience in applying them in [classroom] debating.[1]

Unfortunately, this ideal situation does not prevail in many high schools, or even in some colleges. Too often little or no class work of any sort is offered in speech. In that case the English or social science teacher is the one most frequently expected to handle the debate teams, though the task may fall to almost anyone, including the principal or superintendent who may also teach mathematics. If the coach has never debated himself or had a course in argumentation and debate, the best thing he can do is to read as time allows on both theory and practice of debate and then do the best he can with his youthful protegés, remembering that common sense and intellectual honesty are, after all, his and their most important equipment.

It is partly with the thought of the untrained and inexperienced debate director in mind that this book has been written. It is hoped that it will be of some slight help in removing difficulties and perplexities.

II. The Great Dilemma: Winning Versus Training

It is often said that one is teaching when the work that he is doing is preparing his students to meet various sorts of situations as they may arise, and is aimed at the preparation of the student for a life-time of activity in the field concerned; that one is coaching when his activities are aimed at the outcome of a single contest. In other words, one is teaching debating when his work with a group of students is such that he is fitting them to become competent debaters of any question which they will ever have occasion to debate, and he is coaching when his

[1] J. M. O'Neill. *The Principles of Effective Debating and How to Judge a Debate.* p. 30. Quoted by permission of the author.

activities are simply to fit students to win a decision in a given contest without regard to the preparation which they should receive for a life-time of activity.[2]

"Coaching" in this book is not used in this narrow sense, but the distinction between the short cut and the long-view method holds. Attention is called to what was said in Chapter I as to the real nature of contest debating at its best—an honest, intelligent public discussion which is at the same time a thrilling game.

But the dilemma involves other considerations. How many shall make up the squad, since a small number is easier to work with than a large number? Shall a few star performers be used in all contests, or shall one run the risk of losing a debate now and then by using an inexperienced or less able speaker? And so the questions multiply. The debate coach, anxious to turn out a winning team and sometimes under pressure from an administrator to do so, must make his choice.

But must it be either extreme? Again, it seems to me, a middle course is possible. Debates vary in importance. One, by tradition or peculiar strength of opponents, is regarded as particularly significant by your school. For it use your strongest artillery. Another is with a weak or obscure opponent, or it may not have a decision. There use a new team, or put one or two less experienced debaters on with a veteran.

Thus more people are given a chance to try their wings. One public debate is often worth a season of practice squad debates in giving a green debater confidence in himself. Contest debating justifies its existence, not as an interscholastic display, but as a truly educational enterprise, an activity for the many.

III. How Much Should The Coach Do?

An interesting question, and one that has aroused much discussion. Unquestionably there are many high

[2] Ibid. p. 30.

schools and not a few colleges where the coach does altogether too much, for the student's good, his own good, and the good of debating in general. The coach, however, is a rather necessary evil; so let us consider this question further.

If debating is to be something more than parrot-like declaiming of the coach's words and ideas, the director cannot think merely of decisions, for then he will force his point of view too intensely on his debaters. He must *teach,* so that the individuality of his debaters has a chance to express itself—in thought and word and manner.

He should give his students all the debate theory that time permits, but he must motivate it in relation to the question under discussion. Squad work is perhaps more practical than class work in argumentation, but it can also be less sound and thorough. Can we ever hope for the day when squad members will all have had a preliminary course in argumentation and debate?

The constructive coach will *direct,* not *do,* the work. He will *direct* the reading, *lead* round-table and group discussions, offer case and personal *suggestions, help* with speeches. He will *not write* speeches or large sections thereof for his debaters, for he realizes that such procedure is both dishonest and foolish. Dishonest because the contest is between students, not faculty members; foolish because it involves an unnecessary amount of hard work for himself and defeats every educational end of debating.

Let us be even more specific. Says Professor O'Neill: "The coach should not work in the library; he should not read material; he should not digest material; and he should not draw briefs or outlines." [3] Much as they should like to agree with these views *in toto,* many men and women in charge of debate will not find themselves able to do so. In high school, where stud-

[3] Ibid. p. 31.

ents are immature in background and in trained reasoning, and where, willy-nilly, they often have to consider affairs of state quite outside their ken, unless the coach is pretty well versed in the subject through his general education, he cannot evaluate the arguments that the pupils find or present. Though the case is somewhat different in college, even there the coach needs a birds-eye view of the whole question if he is to offer really constructive criticisms and suggestions. Naturally, the debate director cannot be an expert on all the varied questions that are used from year to year, but he can "work in the library" and he can "read material" without becoming so opinionated that he will force his views on his students. As a matter of fact, will not the average director become so interested in the question with which he and his group are working that it will be difficult for him not to read for himself? Reasonable study of a question and obnoxious coaching, in the writer's opinion, do not necessarily go hand in hand. The coach who appreciates his task will not allow them to do so.

There have been attempts made to limit and define coaching by written agreement. Little or nothing will be accomplished that way, for the dishonest, "scalp-hunting" coach will break or evade the agreement. Far better to rely on the old-fashioned remedies of honor and common sense.

But coaching, to be fully satisfactory to students and directors, is something more than a collection of thou-shalt-nots. The really successful coach leads, he does not drive. He puts the major responsibility for preparation on the debaters. His students respect his scholarship and intellectual honesty. They appreciate that he is willing to give of himself while making demands of them. They regard him as a personal friend. He sets a higher standard than mere "winning." He inspirits his debaters with good sportsmanship, appreciation of the value of the work, and love of the game.

IV. Choosing The Question

Although in high school debating propositions are often sent out from state headquarters, every teacher who is responsible for the handling of debate needs to know what are the characteristics of a good debate question and should be able to formulate usable propositions covering such questions. Knowledge of these matters will not infrequently make possible intelligent cooperation with debate league officials and prevent later dissatisfaction.

A. *What Makes a Good Question for Debate?*

Many debates are less successful than they should be because they are concerned with unsuitable questions, or the questions are poorly formulated. Hence arises the query: What makes a good question for debate?

1. Interesting

A good question is interesting to the debaters, one that they enjoy working with. Also it must be timely enough to interest the audiences that will hear the discussions. Unless it is a question that the debaters can handle intelligently and interestingly, it should not be used.

There is a difference here between high school and college. Such a question as cancellation of Allied debts can be discussed both intelligently and interestingly by college students (though such has not always been the case), but only the exceptional high school boy or girl can do it. I do not mean to imply that high school students should never essay the larger social questions; I am simply pointing out that there is a difference between questions in ease of understanding and presentation, also in interest for the high school student. The Latin-American policy of the United States might very

well be used by high schools, especially if some particular incident made it especially timely. High school boys are not expected to settle great problems of state by their debates, but they often can start people thinking, and there is no good reason why they should not consider such questions. Rather there are valid educational and civic reasons for their studying them.

2. Substantial

The second requirement for a good debate question has already been partly discussed—that it possess sufficient content to repay study and research. High schools vary in library facilities and in funds available for the securing of special references. This fact may make some difference in the questions used, but otherwise the combined characteristic of interestingness and substantialness is a pretty safe and reliable test for choosing a question for contest debating.

Questions of local interest and others on which little or no printed material is available furnish excellent practice in original thinking and investigation, but they are usually better for intramural use than for contests with other schools.

B. *Methods of Choosing a Question*

In the field of college debating there has developed increasing uniformity in the choice of questions, so that often one or two or three questions are used in scores of colleges from coast to coast. This situation, which simplifies the building of schedules, has developed from systems of choosing questions that have grown more and more inclusive.

1. Conference

This method has long been followed in making arrangements for dual and triangular contests between

neighboring schools. The coaches meet at one of the member schools or at some central point and agree upon the arrangements that are to obtain, such as question, date, method of judging. These arrangements may then be reduced to writing in a more or less formal compact, which is signed by representatives of the various schools.

A similar method is commonly used by state leagues. On a designated day, usually late in the spring or early in the fall, coaches from the various member colleges assemble and choose a question and fix a schedule.

What is perhaps the most pretentious conference in the country is the Mid-West Debate Conference, established in 1921, and numbering as members between twenty and thirty colleges in Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Iowa. It meets in Chicago the last Saturday in September. This organization is a conference rather than a league, for there is no schedule of debates between members. The primary purpose of the conference is to choose official questions for the year for men and for women. It may be interesting to note the procedure followed.

Each college, through its representative (usually the debate coach), submits three questions that it favors for the Conference choice. These are noted on a blackboard as given and supported. As soon as all the schools have been heard from, the list of questions is reduced by striking out all those that have been favored only by one or two schools. Brief discussion follows on the remaining questions, proponents of the various questions having an opportunity to speak for their choices. At the close of the discussion, a vote is taken as to whether each question will be retained or rejected. About six are retained, and these are first discussed rather carefully and then carried over the lunch hour for further consideration. Before the Conference reassembles these questions are formulated into propositions by groups of

coaches who favor the questions as their respective first choices. At the afternoon session the propositions are presented, discussed, and possibly altered, and finally voted on, one for men, and one for women. For the final choice, first-choice or preferential voting is used.

The conference method, in general, is the most satisfactory for choosing questions, as it allows for informal give-and-take discussion.

2. Correspondence

The other method most commonly used is for one coach to write to another and propose one or more propositions. The other may agree to one as it stands, or he may propose a change in wording, or he may suggest an entirely different proposition. This process goes on back and forth until agreement is finally reached, perhaps easily and soon, perhaps only after much difficulty and delay.

The correspondence system may be employed between more than two schools. Leagues may also use it, as will be seen from an examination of the organization agreement of the Western Conference Debate League in Appendix X.

A modification of this method, which has obvious advantages, is the questionnaire. This method is employed by the national forensic fraternity of Pi Kappa Delta. Each spring questionnaires are sent out from national headquarters to the hundred or more member colleges over the country asking them to express their preferences for men's and women's questions for the following year. The results are compiled, and early the next fall officially worded propositions are announced.

These propositions are often used by many schools outside the fraternity, as is also the case with the questions chosen by the Mid-West Conference. Often the Pi Kappa Delta and Mid-West questions are practically, if not identically, the same.

3. Choice by a League Manager

In centralized state high school leagues the question is announced by the state manager. The individual member schools should, and usually do, have a chance to express their preferences, and the manager should consult these preferences before announcing the question.

V. Formulating the Proposition [4]

A "question" for debate is not enough. Obviously a contest debate cannot be held on the topic: "Mussolini," for it may be attacked from any number of angles. A discussion is possible, but not a debate. Something must be declared concerning the policy on which two opposing positions are possible. An example is "Resolved, that Mussolini's governmental principles should be condemned."

A. *Kinds of Propositions*

"Propositions may be classified as (1) those of fact, (2) those dealing with proposals advocated as theoretically sound, and (3) those dealing with matters of practical policy." [5]

(1) *Propositions of fact* are concerned with the question "Is this true?" Examples are:

Resolved, that prohibition is unsound in principle.

Resolved, that too many people attend college.

Resolved, that a high protective tariff does the American farmer more harm than good.

[4] Cf. Questioning the Debate Question by Carl Taylor and Raymond Barnard in the *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. 16:355. June 1930, in which the authors argue that propositions should be so worded "that the affirmative has a definite burden of proof *and a specific remedy to advocate.*"

[5] A. Craig Baird. *Public Discussion and Debate*. p. 41. Ginn and Company. 1928. Quoted by permission of the author.

Partly as a result of the visits of British debaters to this country, this type of proposition is being more widely used than previously.

(2) *Propositions advocated as theoretically sound* fall between propositions of fact and propositions of policy. They frequently have the weakness of trying to separate theory and practice. The following examples illustrate the type:

Resolved, that a new political alignment on the basis of liberal and conservative parties would be desirable in the United States.

Resolved, that a requirement of two years of Latin for every student in high school would be desirable.

(3) *Propositions of policy* deal with the question: "Should this be done?" They are the most definite and concrete of the three types, and for that reason are most widely used. To illustrate:

Resolved, that a Federal Department of Education, headed by a cabinet member, should be established.

Resolved, that interscholastic athletics should be abolished.

Resolved, that————should adopt the city manager form of government.

B. *What are the Tests of a Good Debate Proposition?*

1. It Must Be a Single Assertion

By an assertion the position of the affirmative is made definite, as it often could not be by a question. Only one subject should be debated at a time. Otherwise there is uncertainity and confusion. From this standpoint, the following proposition is unusable: "Resolved, that ———— High School should adopt the honor system and abolish final examinations." The

honor system and final examinations are both excellent subjects for debate, but they cannot be debated at the same time with much hope of getting anywhere with either.

2. It Must Be Debatable

By "debatable" is meant that it must not be obviously one-sided; there must be sound argument and evidence on both sides. For example, who would wish to uphold the negative of "Resolved, that laws against speeding are imperfectly enforced"?

A proposition is rendered less fair to both sides if it contains prejudiced wording. The question is begged by the word "undesirable" in the statement: "Resolved, that undesirable movies should be closed on Sunday."

Finally, a proposition is not truly debatable if it is concerned largely with a matter of personal opinion or with a question that should be settled by measurement, and investigation, not argument. Consider "Woodrow Wilson was greater than Theodore Roosevelt" and "Street cars are making money in this city." A distressingly large amount of energy is used daily on street corners, in offices, and elsewhere heatedly arguing such questions.

3. It Must Be Clear in Its Meaning

To that end, ambiguous terms should be avoided. Though of course there are few terms that are entirely free of ambiguity, care must be taken to make the meaning just as clear as possible. Misunderstanding often arises through using terms that are too broad in their scope.

The custom is sometimes followed of having an agreement with opponents in advance as to meanings of doubtful terms. This is probably done less often than formerly, but it is a good way to avoid unhappy quibbling over terms in the debate.

4. It Must be as Brief and Specific as Possible

This requirement is related to the preceding and is self-explanatory.

5. It Must be So Worded as to Place the Burden of Proof on the Affirmative[6]

By "burden of proof" is meant the obligation of influencing hearers to accept the proposition. Such being the case, it is important to know what prevailing public opinion is on a given question. The proposition should be so worded that the affirmative runs counter to public opinion. This rule holds for all types of proposition.

In the case of the proposition of policy, the affirmative is the side advocating a change from the established order. It is they who attack the present, who advocate a departure from the old to the new. The proposition should be so worded that the affirmative of the proposition and the actual affirmative coincide.

A good example is found in two propositions used by the Michigan High School Debating League, both dealing with ship subsidy. That for 1923-1924, when we did not have a subsidy, was: "Resolved, that the adoption of a ship subsidy would be a wise national policy." The affirmative had the burden of showing that we ought to depart from our practice concerning a merchant marine and adopt the new policy of subsidization.

The proposition for 1928-1929 concerned exactly the same question, but it was worded: "Resolved, that Federal subsidy for the development of an American merchant marine is unwise." This wording followed the passage by Congress in May, 1928, of a law providing for a form of subsidy. Now the affirmative's burden is to show that Congress erred. With a subsidy provided for and so become the established order, they must attack it.

[6] Cf. Baird. op. cit. p. 51.

It is sometimes said that a proposition should not be worded negatively. Often the use of the word *not* is awkward, but it is not necessarily wrong. The real test is that just given: Is the proposition so worded that the burden of proof is on the affirmative?

VI. Selecting the Squad

As debating is conducted in the average high school and college, the number of questions used during a season is quite small: there may be only one. Especially useful, and indeed essential, for this situation, is the squad system; and even where numerous questions are used as the season progresses, the squad system possesses undoubted advantages.

By the squad system is meant the practice of choosing a group of people who have possibilities in thinking and speaking, to constitute the squad. All of these people work during the season, and from time to time from their number teams are chosen to represent the school in contests with teams from other institutions.

A. *When Should The Squad Be Chosen?*

It depends somewhat on local conditions, on the experience of those who will probably constitute the group, and also on the difficulty of the question. In general, choose your squad in time to allow thorough preparation but not so far in advance of the opening of the season that they will dawdle or become stale. The usual period will vary from one month to two months. Six weeks is usually quite satisfactory.

B. *How Many Should Constitute The Squad?*

Again, it depends on the size of the schedule and on the qualifications of those who try out. It may be highly desirable to choose a fairly large group even

though there is a limited number of contests on the schedule, because the people are very promising. They should have the training given by squad work, and though some of them can be used little or not at all in inter-school contests this year, the training will make them valuable members of the squad another year. If the final number is an even multiple of three, the squad will function most smoothly when divided into teams. Squads can be so large as to be unwieldy and so small as to give very few people the training. The minimum should be six, or two complete teams; twelve or eighteen is a good number.

Most colleges follow the practice of having separate squads and separate debates for men and women. Mixed teams will probably always be the rule in high school.

C. *How Should The Squad Be Selected?*

The suggestions that follow are based on the personal experience of numerous coaches in both high school and college. At the same time there is no idea of setting them forth as the only possible methods, for methods should vary with individuals and with local conditions.

(1) Get the widest possible publicity for your call for squad candidates. Use the school or college paper. Get out some posters and bulletin-board notices. Give a talk in assembly or have it done by some one else who carries weight—student or faculty member. Enlist the aid of other teachers in spying out likely material. See people personally, but use judgment as to how much you urge; a student's future usefulness can be impaired by much coaxing. Trying-out is a privilege for him, not a favor to you. Enlist the aid of those who have been on the squad before in getting out new candidates. If there are literary societies, work through them. But get out the vote!

(2) Do not have a formal tryout at first. There

may be inexperienced students who will be frightened away by it. Get all those who are interested to come together at a designated time and place, and there explain the nature of the work—and the fun.

(3) Shortly thereafter hold preliminary tryouts in the form of a short talk (5 minutes is enough) on the debate proposition or possibly some other controversial topic, having each student take a position pro or con. On the basis of these talks eliminate these who are clearly unsuited for debating.

(4) Divide those who remain—and the number may well be two or three times as large as the final squad—into teams for practice debates. These debates may be shortened by having briefer speeches than usual. More than one round is desirable gradually to reduce the number on the squad, but one round is imperative in order to get some idea of a speaker's ability in rebuttal. I believe it is possible to extend the series so long that people become tired of the process, but of course it is better to have an automatic elimination of the lazy and incompetent than to have a final squad with liabilities where assets are needed. Try to have these teams as evenly balanced as possible. It is a good plan to use an experienced debater as captain of each team and make him responsible for it.

(5) On the basis of the practice debate or series of debates pick your final squad. It pays to consider potentialities as well as actualities. Here is a lower classman, awkward and halting but willing to work and possessing promise. Here is a senior who had no time to come out before: he will never be a Demosthenes, but he has a splendid social science background and can make a real contribution. And here is a junior who possesses the "gift of gab." He is popular among his fellows but is the biggest bluffer in school. Which of the three will you chose?

Ruth E. Huston, writing in the *Quarterly Journal of*

Speech Education, adds: "Even after debaters have outdistanced their fellow-students on the platform, there are several other necessary tests. Is the student *physically* strong enough to carry such an activity in addition to his regular [academic and outside] work? Is his *scholarship* record high enough to recommend him? Is he *dependable?* Is he capable of *hard work*" ?[1]

And it may be added, is he *teachable*? Can he and will he respond to constructive criticism?

(6) If you do not pick the squad alone, at least hold the final word as to who goes on it. If only eighteen people are going through one round of debates, it means several hours of listening, and often it is hard to secure two other faculty members to act with you as judges. A combined judgment is very often better than the judgment of one, but if you do have assistance, get teachers who are pretty well acquainted with the student body; as already pointed out, it is not merely platform performance that is significant. If you act alone, extreme care must be taken to prevent any appearance of bias or favoritism.

[1] From article Debate Coaching in High School. *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education*. 10:137. April, 1924.

CHAPTER IV

COACHING: SQUAD WORK

I. Gathering Material
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   - B. Division of Labor
   - C. Note-taking
   - D. Assimilation
   - E. Where to Look
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     2. Books
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     1. A Reading Room
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II. Squad Practice
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III. Writing Speeches

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V. The Final Team
   - A. Don't Pick the Final Team Too Early

B. Characteristics of the Respective Speakers
C. Alternates
D. Intensive Training

VI. A Suggested Coaching Schedule

VII. Other Plans

Now that the squad is chosen, we are ready to go ahead with the actual training of the debaters. Of course there is no one correct way to do it, and the reader is asked to bear this in mind when direct suggestions are offered in the following pages. The methods and devices presented have all been used successfully. They are passed on, not as laws, but as suggestions which may prove helpful.

Naturally, all directors do not follow the same method. At the end of this chapter other plans will be found, which may profitably be compared with the suggestions offered in the chapter.

I. Gathering Material

The ordinary debate question requires much reading and research before the student can discuss it with any real thoroughness. That does not mean that his only sources are books and magazines. He should make use of what knowledge, general and specific, he already has, and he should not be afraid to do some original thinking.

Why does the debater read and gather material at all? To inform himself on the question? Yes. To gather the wherewithal to construct a brief? Yes. Both are means to the real end, and that end is to prepare himself to *influence his audience.* An audience is led to believe or to act as a speaker desires in various ways and by various means. It is influenced by facts and figures, by what prominent authorities say, by abstract reasoning. It is influenced by the way in which arguments are presented. It is influenced by the speaker himself—his voice, his manner, his "personality."

Just what elements, then, are used to convince and persuade, to establish proof, to secure acceptance, to move to action?

The *material*[1] is evidence, which consists of facts, data, statistics, quotations.

The *process* is reasoning or argument, for which Cardinal Newman's definition is still sound, "Any process or act of the mind by which, from knowing one thing, it advances on to know another."

In summary, to quote verbatim Professor O'Neill's analogy: "Argument is the process by which the raw material, evidence, is turned into the finished product, proof."[2]

A. *Reading*

The reading order should be from the general to the specific, from background to present-day facts and figures, from books to magazines to newspapers. Naturally in studying a question one will use all of these sources more or less concurrently, but for real understanding of the broader aspects one needs background material early in his research.

For example, in a discussion of our Latin-American policy one could say many interesting and timely things on the basis of reading in newspapers and popular magazines, but his discussion would inevitably be superficial without a thorough-going study of the Monroe Doctrine and its origin and development.

B. *Division of Labor*

While team or squad members are gathering material, there should be division of labor in their reading. If considerable material is available, it is out of the

[1] I am indebted to Prof. J. M. O'Neill for this illustrative analogy. Cf. O'Neill, Laycock & Scales. *Argumentation and Debate*. p. 83. The Macmillan Company. 1917.

[2] Ibid. p. 83. Quoted by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

question for each one to read it all. Instead let each be responsible for certain books and periodicals, reporting to the squad what he has found. Thus time and effort are conserved, and such articles as are particularly good are called to the attention of all. As indicated in the following section, notes can be exchanged, and in addition individual members can read for themselves articles reported as being especially valuable.

C. *Note-Taking*

The systematic taking of notes while reading is a habit to be cultivated by the student and to be insisted upon by the coach. No matter how telling a certain article or certain point may be when read, the chances are that both point and source will be forgotten as more points and more articles pile up, unless notes are taken. And it is *systematic* note-taking that counts, a system that is uniform, permitting the exchange of notes from one squad member to another.

The card system is recommended by all writers and coaches. If funds are available, the school should supply debaters with cards, and each student should buy for himself an indexed filing box in which to keep his notes as they accumulate. It is also possible to secure collapsible manila folders for cards. They are convenient to have when doing library reading, as they can be carried in the pocket. They do not, however, take the place of the wooden filing boxes. Two sizes of cards are in common use—3 x 5 in. and 4 x 6 in. The former are neater to use on the platform; the latter will contain considerably more material. Whichever size is used, all on the squad should use the same so that, as mentioned before, cards may be exchanged. For this same purpose, cards should be written as legibly as possible, in ink, or, better still, they should be typewritten.

But a note on a card is not enough in itself; it must be documented if it is to have the maximum usefulness.

In general each card should contain one point, though in the case of long quotations or summarized articles there may be exceptions. Concerning the note, we need to know three things: What is it about? Who said it? Where was it found? These questions are answered on the sample evidence card shown below prepared for a debate on the McNary-Haugen farm relief bill, under the respective headings Topic, Authority, and Source.

Topic	Authority	Source
Price-fixing not involved	Frank O. Lowden Ex-Gov. of Ill. Special student of problem.	Congressional Record Feb. 8, 1927 p. 3316

"Neither the govt. nor the govt. board would determine the price. Nor would even the cooperative itself fix the price. . . It, like every other industry, would study all the conditions affecting the particular commodity and from time to time decide on a price which conditions would seem to warrant. It would merely enjoy advantages which come from organized selling."

A definite *topic* is necessary. All of the cards of course fall under the general heading of the question for debate, but that is not specific enough. In the course of his reading the student should accumulate a great number of cards, for it is only after he has done much reading that he really gets his bearings; he cannot tell what is important. Although in the very early stages of reading it is just as well not to take many detailed notes but rather to browse intelligently, in general one should err on the side of too many notes rather than too few; what at the time of reading may seem almost too trivial to make a note on, may prove

of the greatest value later. The worthless cards are easily sorted out and rejected later.

As the number of cards increases, it is essential to have some way of identifying them. Therefore the index box, and a heading on each card which tells in a word what the card deals with. By glancing at the Topic section one decides whether he should read the whole card.

The *Authority* heading gives the name of the author of the article containing the note or of the person making the statement quoted. Unless such authority is so well known that his name in itself carries weight, there should be a brief notation as to his position, *et cetera,*— his pedigree, as it were. *Who's Who in America* is the standard reference work on prominent living Americans. Various magazines contain in each issue brief notes about their contributors. If an editorial or news dispatch is the source of the note, the Authority space may contain some such notation as "Editorial" or "A.P. Dispatch."

The *Source* is important, for it establishes authenticity; it enables one to find a reference again and re-read it; and in case an opponent challenges one's evidence it is "a very present help in time of trouble." The date is important, as is also the page number.

As to the note itself, it should be as brief and pointed as possible. If it is a direct quotation, in whole or in part, quotation marks should be used in simple accuracy and honesty. Omissions should be indicated by leaders . . . as indicated in the sample card illustrated. And finally, if one would avoid grief, he should write on only one side of the card.

In all this gathering of material, students of course should do the work, but in high school, at least, they need some direction. Squad members will do well to keep note of useful articles as such, to the end that as the season progresses a composite bibliography may be

developed. If the services of a librarian are available, often a bibliography can be prepared for the squad at the outset of their preparation which will be of great assistance, especially in getting started.

D. *Assimilation*

It is not the mere accumulation of facts, quotations, and statistics that should be the aim of the reader and note-taker. These are simply the raw materials.

> To have strength and vitality in proof, the ideas and arguments of other writers and thinkers must be so fused with one another and with the ideas of the student himself, that the final product bears little if any resemblance to any one of the parts of which it is made; it is not the idea of this book or that, nor the idea of the reader, but an indivisible composite of all.[3]

Such an "indivisible composite" is the result of a student's weighing each piece of evidence as he finds it and bringing it into relationship with his previous body of knowledge and ideas. He must assimilate facts as he assimilates food,—not in great undigestible masses at long intervals, but continuously in small amounts. If debaters only followed this practice more widely, we should avoid much of the spewing forth on long-suffering audiences of vast quantities of statistics and quotations, unintelligible because undigested and unassimilated.

E. *Where to Look*[4]

I. Bibliographies

Specially prepared bibliographies have already been referred to. On many subjects ready-prepared bibliographies are available. One of the best sources is the Library of Congress, which on request sends out gratis,

[3] O'Neill. op. cit. p.77. Quoted by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

[4] For an admirable collection of suggestions and listing of sources, see Baird's *Public Discussion and Debate.* p. 57 ff.

or for a very small charge, extensive bibliographies on a great number of subjects. By addressing the Librarian, Library of Congress, Washington, D.C. these compilations can be secured by any teacher, though they will be received more easily and more quickly if the request goes through a school or public library.

Some of the larger public libraries such as the Pittsburgh Carnegie Library, have printed or typed bibliographies which they distribute either free or for a nominal charge. In all of The H. W. Wilson Company publications, mentioned below, appear very useful bibliographies. Many books on specific topics contain lists of references to other works on the same subject.

2. Books

Whether or not there is a bibliography, students should be directed to consult the *card index* of the local library under various headings. For example, in searching for material on child labor, they might look under such headings as Child labor, Children's bureau, Social legislation, Labor. Books are usually listed under title, author, and subject.

If the coach wishes to discover *other books not in the library,* he should consult the United States Catalog with its monthly supplements, where he can find what has been published on a given subject over a given period. By consulting such publications as the *Book Review Digest* and the American Library Association *Booklist* found in most libraries, he can find comments by reviewers of these books which will help him to decide whether he wishes to buy them in case they are not in the library.

Special debate reference books are published by the H. W. Wilson Company of New York. They consist of the *Handbook Series,* each volume of which is devoted to a specific public question and contains a short brief, reprints of articles pro and con, and a bibliog-

raphy; the *Reference Shelf,* in the nature of a periodical, but published irregularly, each issue of which is on a different subject, made up as are the handbooks but containing less material; and the *University Debaters' Annuals* which contain stenographic reports of a number of representative intercollegiate debates on various subjects, a brief and bibliography accompanying each debate.

Beginning in 1927, appeared the first of a new series of *Intercollegiate Debates,* edited, as was the former series, discontinued several years previously, by Egbert Ray Nichols. The publishers are Noble and Noble, New York City. Several specimen college debates are given, together with bibliographies and certain notes.

Specimen debates may be of great value, but they can easily be used over-much by the immature debater, at the expense of his honesty, originality, and industry.

There are, of course, numerous *general reference books* in all libraries which the debater can consult with or without the aid of the librarian, such as encyclopedias, the *Statesman's Yearbook,* the *World Almanac,* the *Statistical Abstracts,* and numerous others.

General economics, history, political science, and sociology *text books* often furnish the very best sort of background reading for the usual debate question, and it is unfortunate that these sources are too often neglected or overlooked entirely.

3. Periodicals

The standard *index for magazine articles* is the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature,* found in nearly all libraries. As in the case of library card indexes, material is listed under the headings of subject and author with title references for fiction and poetry. The more scholarly periodicals are indexed similarly in the *International Index to Periodicals.*

For information on debate questions, besides the more *popular magazines* such as the *Outlook*, the *Nation*, the *New Republic*, *Current History*, the *Literary Digest*, the *World's Work*, the *Forum*, and the *American Review of Reviews*, there are especially valuable *publications on social science* such as the *Survey*, *Foreign Affairs* (one American, the other English), the *National Municipal Review*, the *American Labor Legislation Review*, the *Journal of Political Economy*, the *American Political Science Review*, the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, the *American Economic Review*, the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, the *Commercial and Financial Chronicle*, the *Annalist*, the *Nation's Business*, the *American Journal of Sociology*, *Sociological Review*, the *Educational Review*, *School and Society*, *Education*.

These lists might be lengthened almost indefinitely. These periodicals are all indexed regularly in one or another of the Wilson periodical indexes, and many have annual indexes of their own. Some print lists of current references in the fields they cover and review outstanding articles appearing elsewhere. A new publication, devoted exclusively to reviews of social science material appearing elsewhere, is *Social Science Abstracts*. It covers an immense field and should prove helpful to debaters.

The *Congressional Digest*, privately published at Washington, is a monthly magazine very useful for debaters, containing as its name indicates, a digest of important activities of the Federal government. Each number also makes a special feature of some timely public question, such as farm relief, flood control, ship subsidy, presenting an unbiased account of background facts and special discussion pro and con by leaders in Congress.

Among *newspapers*, the *United States Daily* holds a unique position. Published by a group of prominent

journalists and newspaper correspondents, it has no editorial policy but is devoted to the unbiased chronicling of the activities of various branches of the Federal government. There is a weekly and also a cumulative annual index.

The *New York Times* publishes an index for its own issues, which will be found in practically all libraries maintaining a file of the *Times*. Though this index refers only to the *Times* itself, it serves indirectly for other papers as well, for an event of which an account appears in the *Times* on a given date will receive space in other newspapers about the same time. A similar use can be made of the detailed chronological list of current events listed in such magazines as the *Review of Reviews*.

4. Government Publications

The *Congressional Record*, the official day-by-day record of the proceedings of Congress, contains much valuable material, though it is often a bit difficult to find. There is a weekly index for numbers as they appear and also an index for the entire session.

The various departments of Federal, state, and municipal governments issue masses of publications in the form of *Reports and Special Bulletins*. Many public libraries receive regularly such federal publications as the *Commerce Reports*, the *Monthly Labor Review*, and the *Yearbook* of the *Department of Agriculture*. Government publications, though sometimes late in appearing, have the advantage of being authoritative and presumably unbiased.

Bulletins and reports of the Federal government are available from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., at a nominal charge and may often be secured gratis through the local Representative or United States Senator, who is allowed a certain number

for distribution. There is a monthly index covering all Federal publications (outside the *Congressional Record*), including those of Congress, executive departments, and independent bureaus and commissions. At the end of each *session* of Congress there is an index published covering all reports and documents authorized by the Senate and the House of Representatives, but not reports of executive departments for that period. At the end of each *congress,* however, there is an index, corresponding to the monthly index already mentioned, which covers all Federal publications during the life of that Congress.

5. Material Issued By Organizations

In Appendix III there is given a partial list of organizations that publish material. This list might be multiplied several times, to cover almost every phase of human interest and activity. The *World Almanac* may well be consulted from year to year for names and correct addresses, under *Organizations in the United States.* Some of these organizations are old and highly reputable; others are decidedly propagandist bodies. The publications of most of them need to be used with the knowledge that the organizations issuing them look at matters from a more or less definite angle. For example, compare a report of a strike issued by the American Federation of Labor with one issued by the National Association of Manufacturers. Similarly, a discussion of preparedness by the Navy League of the United States with one by the Council for the Prevention of War.

Some of the "organizations with a purpose" supply material free. In writing, one should always offer to pay if a charge is made. Free material, in general, needs the closest scrutiny as to its degree of propaganda.

There is another sort of organization that supplies debate material—the so-called debaters' bureau, which

advertises to send, for a certain price, bibliographies, prepared briefs, collected reprints, etc., on given questions. Such material is often well worth what it costs; often it has little that is not easily found elsewhere. Anything prepared at such sources is of course available to all comers. One must use his judgment in ordering.

Among such organizations are the Debaters' Research Agency of Baylor University, Waco, Texas, and the *Debaters' Digest,* published at Fair Lawn, New Jersey. The former sends out some very usable and well collected material on various current questions. The *Debaters' Digest* is a little paper designed for high schools and published three times a month from December to April. It contains interesting and useful information on current debate questions and many practical suggestions as to the conduct of debate.

Unlike these reputable sources, we have certain get-rich-quick organizations that parade under high-sounding names and offer to do anything from sending "invaluable" briefs and reprints to preparing an entire debate. Always a good stiff price is charged, and seldom is the material sent worth the paper it is written on. One such "service" in New England has as its motto "We Prove Anything," and its charges are twenty-five dollars and up!

6. Letters and Interviews

After considerable time has been spent in studying a question and in organizing facts and arguments, it will be found that certain specific data are needed to establish a point or that the testimony of authorities is needed. Neither the data nor the testimony are to be found in printed material. Under such circumstances the personal letter may elicit the desired information. It should state the reason for writing, should be brief, should contain pointed categorical questions, and should be accompanied by return postage.

The personal interview with a mill owner employing a thousand men may be highly enlightening when one is getting ready to debate the closed shop, and the use of facts gained in such an interview arouses the interest of the audience. On the other hand, its use in a formal contest is circumscribed by the fact that one's opponents have not been present at the interview and so have not had access to the same material.

Many questions do not call for the use of such material as is secured by letter and interview. At the same time, it is likely that these means of securing fresh, up-to-the minute evidence are neglected for the easier and more conventional method of "searching the Scriptures" of textbooks and other printed sources.

7. Miscellaneous Sources

Among such sources should be listed clipping collections on file in the reference departments of city and college libraries, and the "package library" service of state and university libraries. Packages of assorted material on a given question may be secured in many states free of charge by writing to the extension department of the state university library. This material is lent for a certain period, which, upon request, is often extended. Such material, of course, is not exhaustive and will probably be used by various other schools.

F. *Suggestions*

1. A Reading Room

Reading material should be handled in such a way that all members of the squad have access to it whenever they have some time for reading. A separate room where all material can be kept and where squad members can meet for conference is the ideal arrangement. Under such conditions a debater can look over all the material and browse intelligently; such procedure is of

the greatest value, especially in the earlier stages of preparation.

2. Signing for Material

One caution to the coach. Have a system for your debaters to follow in signing up for material that they draw for home reading, else a few people, intentionally or otherwise, will monopolize it, and there will be no way to check whether valuable books and pamphlets are circulating or not.

3. Buying Special Material

Finally, the library, the school administration, or debate funds should make possible the purchase of books and other material that are needed but are not now owned by the library. At the end of the season they can be turned over to the library as permanent accessions.

II. Squad Practice

Some coaches need to be reminded at the outset that, no matter how important a single debate or a debate schedule may be, it is not important enough to disrupt the student's regular class work over a considerable period. Naturally, there will be times when special time and effort will be necessary, but that does not mean that debating must crowd everything else out. You, as coach, will enjoy very much better cooperation and support from your colleagues on the faculty if you show reasonable consideration for their work.

A. *A Regular Meeting Time*

Have a regular meeting time, which is observed nearly, if not quite, as scrupulously as class hours. To be sure, there may have to be extra meetings at times,

the whole squad need not always meet, and there will be private conferences, but the nearer squad work approaches the regularity of class work, the better. It is not always easy to find an hour when all the squad members can meet. In such cases it is sometimes possible for them to meet by smaller groups, as affirmative and negative. It depends on local conditions as to whether a definite meeting time should be fixed in advance; it often is necessary to wait until the squad is chosen and then consult the convenience of the members. Especially in high school, it is desirable to have two consecutive class hours for squad meetings, or at least to avoid night meetings.

B. *Group Discussion*

Use group discussion and much of it. There is no better training in original thinking and extempore speaking than that received when the group sits about and argues points back and forth in serious, friendly give-and-take. Sometimes group discussion may follow debates, sometimes an entire meeting may be given up to it. Sometimes the entire squad may meet, sometimes just the affirmative or negative section of it. Group discussion should be informal but kept within bounds; otherwise it will encourage "wind-jamming" and will waste time. There is no reason why, when the coach meets with the group, he should not participate in the discussion, calling it back from digressions, and keeping it pointed. Of course, acting as a member of the group, he must not force his own views, nor should he speak unnecessarily.

C. *Issues and Contentions*

From group discussion emerges the statement of issues and contentions: issues, which are "certain vital points . . . upon which rests the truth or falsity of the

main proposition";[5] contentions, which are the major arguments advanced by a team to answer the issues, affirmatively or negatively as the case may be. In view of the fact that these matters are fully discussed in all standard argumentation tests, space does not allow their treatment here, except for a suggestion or two of direct interest to coaches.

How are the issues to be determined? It is not an easy task, nor a quick one, nor one to be satisfactorily prescribed by rules. Much study of both sides and all phases of the question; rejection of the irrelevant and unimportant; selection of the vital; honest and independent thinking: these are some of the requirements. Trial and error is involved, for one cannot arbitrarily and irrevocably define the issues early in the season. What are finally decided to be the issues may bear little resemblance to those so labeled earlier.

One particular device used by some is the listing, side by side, of opposing arguments, affirmative and negative, and from this parallel line-up determining the essential clashes. This is often useful though not necessarily exhaustive.

Another question is sometimes asked: How many issues and how many contentions should there be? It all depends. Whereas the issues, so far as content are concerned, are the same for both affirmative and negative, the contentions are necessarily widely different. They may be the same in number as the issues; they often are more numerous, as it may take two or three contentions to meet a single issue. For contentions, besides the requirement of sound analysis, there enter audience psychology and team tactics. In general, the smaller the number the better, for the audience saturation point is very low. It is convenient for case and team organization when there are just three contentions, one for each member of the team. And it is an even

[5] Graves and Spotts. *The Art of Argument.* p.64. Prentice-Hall. 1927.

happier arrangement when there are also three issues, each answered by a contention—happy for speakers and happy for audience. And therein lies a danger, a danger that cases for all debates on all questions shall be thrust into this mould, which sometimes fits and sometimes does not. There is no iron-clad, fool-proof system.

Not merely in number but also in wording, contentions should be formulated with the audience in mind. If possible, they should be worded so that they appeal to human wants—leadership, wealth, honor, and a host of others, to which we may legitimately look for response without sacrificing logic to persuasion.

A final word. Avoid, if possible such sterotyped contentions as the following:

Affirmative	*Negative*
1. There is a need.	1. The proposed plan is theoretically unsound.
2. The proposal is right in principle	2. It is unworkable.
3. It is practicable.	3. It is harmful in effects.
4. It is desirable.	

All of these may be valid and cogent arguments, and it must be admitted that their brevity aids retention. However, they may still be valid, cogent, and brief but dressed up in fresh and attractive wording, adapted to the particular question and showing some regard for audience response.

D. *Briefs and Outlines*

On this topic, too, any extended discussion would be out of place here. A model outline is given in Appendix IV.

The brief, of course, is a team project and not that of any one speaker, although the preparation of complete briefs may be a valuable exercise for individual members. In high school it is often not worth the time

and energy to insist on briefs that meet every technical requirement. At the same time, because of its simplicity and clearness of arrangement, the brief is quite indispensable, at least in an adapted form. When teams are required to work briefs out as teams, the members will naturally do part of the work individually after the main headings are agreed upon.

Not only teams, but larger groups, may profitably work together in the drawing up of briefs. Suppose there are eighteen on the squad, nine affirmative and nine negative. Let the affirmative and negative groups meet separately and, possibly with one of their number as leader at the blackboard, draw up a brief in its larger headings. The coach, if he keeps himself merely one of the group and does not force his own ideas, may act as the leader if his time allows. The group will probably accomplish more if he is there!

To bridge the gap between the logical presentation in the *brief* of all the facts and the effective adaptation of the speech to the audience, the individual *outline* is needed. For its content the speaker can draw on the brief, selecting, rejecting, arranging, always with the audience in mind. He can reword contentions so that they appeal more directly, can arrange arguments and illustrations in climactic order, and take various other liberties with the material contained in the brief.

To serve its purpose of aiding in the preparation of the final speech, the outline should be quite complete. It should always be looked on as a means, however, and should not be adhered to slavishly. It should be so worded as to carry the mind from point to point by transitions. To avoid confusion, important points and sub-points should usually appear as complete sentences; catch-words that mean something very definite today will have gone stale tomorrow. It is well to build along the same lines as those of a well constructed speech—introduction, discussion, and conclusion.

These are just suggestions—not iron-clad rules. Where one person needs a very full and carefully developed outline, another may construct an equally good speech from one that is much more sketchy.

While we are considering outlines, a word should be said concerning the outline that is used to speak from in the practice or actual debate. It is probably safe to say that it is only the exceptional debater, even in college, who can be trusted to speak with absolutely no notes. On the other hand, many speakers lessen their effectiveness seriously by over-use of notes. Their presence in the hand or on the speaker's stand often means that they will be mechanically referred to when they are not needed at all, thereby breaking connection between speaker and listeners.

Speaking notes should be reduced to a minimum. Under no circumstances should the manuscript of a speech be tolerated. The speaking outline will generally be much less detailed than the preparatory speech outline, but clarity and ease of following it with the eye should not be sacrificed to brevity. It should be written on a large card or a not too obtrusively large sheet of paper, so that there is room in the margin to jot down points to be considered in running rebuttal.

Some debaters who use at least a partly memorized style of delivery find it a useful device to incorporate in their platform outline certain phrases of a transitional, climactic, or similar nature that they wish to remember verbatim. Each speaker must work out his own method, one that aids rather than hinders him in being successful.

E. *The Maximum From Practice Debates*

In the following discussion it is presupposed that the squad numbers at least six, and preferably two or three times that number. Even in the high school, where,

for one reason or another, it is felt that there are only three people good enough to make up a team for public performance, there should be a larger squad. "Scrub" teams are as important in preparation for debate as for football training.

(1) By practice debates is not necessarily meant formal practice debates with three speakers on a side giving constructive and rebuttal speeches. Here is a good place to try out new types of debating, both for variety and for practical training.

(2) Whatever *type* is used, the extempore *method* should be employed. Even though the speeches as finally given may not be purely extemporaneous,[6] practice contests should furnish training in speaking from assimilated knowledge of the subject, where the precise wording is not prepared and memorized in advance. Only by use of the extemporaneous method will the debater learn to think on his feet, to adapt himself to opposing arguments, to contribute to a debate rather than an oratorical contest. In this way he will learn to speak from notes, constructive and rebuttal, without being tied to them and also without losing contact with his audience.

(3) After the squad has had a chance to do some preliminary reading on both sides of the question, the director should find out on which side the members prefer to work. On most questions there will be a surprisingly even division. Always there are some who have no particular preference, and they can be assigned to one side or the other as their experience and abilities make desirable. As pointed out in Chapter 1, not only will the cause of intellectual honesty be served by encouraging students to work and debate on the side of the question that they believe; such procedure makes for better debating, for one is more convincing, more persuasive when arguing for something that he believes. On many questions high school and college students hold no de-

[6] Cf. *Writing Speeches*, pages 93-6.

cided views and find so much to be said on both sides, that, without stultifying themselves in the least, they can conscientiously uphold either affirmative or negative.

In the same chapter mention was made of the fact that a different practice may profitably be followed in squad debates. Here you will do well to shift sides and thereby make one who believes strongly in the affirmative find arguments against his own position. Such training enlarges his viewpoint and makes him a more intelligent advocate of his own views.

(4) Not only should sides be changed from time to time, but the line-up and personnel of teams should be changed. Suppose there are twelve on the squad, two affirmative teams—A and B—and two negative teams—C and D. Let team A meet team C this week and team D next week. Similarly with team B and the negative teams.

As the teams as a whole are shifted, so should the members take different positions. If in the practice debate today Brown speaks first, Green second and White third, in the next encounter let White speak first, Brown second, and Green third. By thus shifting speakers the director often discovers and develops new qualities, qualities that make for all-round development of the individual and for a balanced team.

And still other shifting should be done. Don't always use Brown, Green, and White as a team. Practice-debate teams should be as evenly matched as possible, and to that end put White on a team with Baker and Carpenter and bring Taylor over on the team with Green and Brown. Such shifting makes for interest in the squad, necessitates cooperation with new associates, and, most important of all, it brings forth new ideas.

I do not wish to give the impression of advocating continual shifting; more will often be gained by allowing the personnel of a practice team to remain the same for some time. The principle so constantly stressed holds

here: the teacher must suit his methods to his particular problems.

(5) One thing, however, is certain. Even though the line-up and personnel of teams remain as fixed as the law of the Medes and Persians, the arguments, individually and as cases, must not. Practice debates become practically valueless, to say nothing of being an insufferable bore, unless each time they bring forth new arguments, new evidence, new organization of case. This means that teams must work between debates, both as individuals and as teams—reading, assimilating, conferring, organizing. *And work without the coach*, though he should be available for advice if really needed.

(6) Should there be team captains? For practice debates, yes, if by "captain" is meant one of the team members temporarily designated by the coach as leader, responsible for getting his team together for conference and planning of case. Appoint the member who is experienced and dependable so far as possible. If to pass this slight honor around does not interfere with getting results, it is not a bad idea to do so.

For the final contest team a captain may be desirable for the same reasons as for the practice team, although the designation of one is by no means essential. If there is one, he should be "king for a day" only, preferably named by the coach. Although he should never be allowed to get the idea that he is a Mussolini, arbitrarily assigning tasks to his colleagues, his teammates need to understand that because of experience he is the leader and that his suggestions are not lightly to be thrown aside.

(7) If practice debates are to contribute their maximum value, they should not be too frequent. As suggested earlier, there are times when the entire squad need not meet to listen to a practice debate. This device lessens the pressure (on everybody but the coach) when the squad is large and contains a good many who

are inexperienced and so need the practice. However, even in such a situation it is sometimes desirable to omit a regular meeting so that the time may be given to library work. There is no use in going through the motions of a practice debate when the debaters simply rehash the same ideas and facts used in the last one.

(8) If you are teaching in a small town with poor library facilities, rather than spend all the time in practice-debating with the material you have received from the State University Library—material which every other high school has received—why not take your students to the library of a nearby city where they can get fresh and interesting material? Often colleges and universities are glad to have small groups of high school pupils use their facilities and extend every courtesy to them. It will be remembered that in the discussion of Gathering Material it was urged that funds should be available for the purchase of especially valuable material. Even though this happy condition prevails in the small high school, bound volumes of periodicals, especially the more specialized ones, are usually not available; and it is here that visits to the city or university library may be of great help.

(9) When a squad contains members who are unfamiliar with the technique of contest debates, perhaps never having heard one—and such a situation is not unusual even in college—it is a good plan to take them to hear a contest at another high school or at some not-too-distant college if the opportunity offers. Even though the intercollegiate schedule may not have been opened, there are often intramural debates of one sort or another to which outside visitors are welcome.

(10) To come back to the conduct of the practice debate, the coach may profitably debate once in a while himself, either upholding one side alone or taking the part of one speaker on a team. Do it, not necessarily to furnish a perfect model, but to appreciate more di-

rectly the students' problems, to contribute a bit of variety, and to show the students that you are willing to try your hand at what you ask them to do. The squad will enjoy the experience, and so will you.

(11) What should follow the practice debate? Criticism and discussion, and lots of it. The coach is critic, of substance, organization, teamwork, rebuttal, delivery—everything. Although some of his comments will be largely individual, most of them should be of value to the entire squad. This criticising and suggesting is about the most important thing the coach has to do, and he should be thoroughly constructive. Here's a chance for you to use all the insight and tact you possess. One boy has obviously bluffed; he needs to understand that you know it. Another has done his best but is inexperienced; he needs to be encouraged. A third has found much good material but doesn't know how to use it: show him. Still another can't get the hang of rebuttal; explain and illustrate. And so on, case after case, debater after debater, problem after problem. There's nothing sterotyped about the debate coach's work. Diagnosis and prescription vary widely, and yet there are sufficient elements in common so that suggestions to one team or one debater may help all.

The director's criticisms and suggestions may well be partly oral, partly written. The former have the greatest value for the entire squad; the latter save time and often are more emphatic for the individual.

The coach should not have a monopoly on the suggesting either. Let there be free and open, frank, good-natured criticism by squad members. You may be wrong on a certain point: an argument may be sounder than you think it is. You should be the first to welcome honest disagreement, straightforwardly expressed, on the part of the debater you are criticising or of other squad members. Very often the most valuable part of a practice debate is the free-for-all discussion of a moot point

that rages until midnight. That's genuine; that's the real thing; that's the training which Alexander Meiklejohn commends when he speaks of the "tougher intellectual fiber" of intercollegiate debaters.

(12) More than once during the season you will find it helpful to call in colleagues on the teaching force to hear practice debates and offer criticisms. These suggestions will deal mostly with content, but often a suggestion on debating or strategy will be timely and helpful. You, as coach, are supposed to be an authority on debating, but that does not mean that you are an authority on each and every question. The social science teacher is usually interested in debate and should be able to offer many valuable suggestions. Bring him or her or them in, one at a time or in a group; the more you can get interested in your work the better, for then you'll get sympathetic cooperation. A case or an argument may look sound and effective to you who are used to it; a faculty colleague may tear it to pieces. Thank him for it and adopt his suggestions if he has good reasons for his viewpoint. It's better for a team to have a pet argument deflated by a friend than annihilated by an opposing team.

It may be possible and desirable to have a more or less definite advisory faculty committee to sit in as a group or individually from time to time, and offer suggestions. Whatever particular method is employed, at least make use of your colleagues on the faculty—within reason of course. Remember that different viewpoints are valuable.

(13) In this same connection, have your students sound out people who have not made any study of the question and discover how much or how little they really know about it. Let them talk with the merchant, the postman, the housewife. Perhaps, as a result of much study and discussion, the debaters are becoming such specialists that they will be quite unintelligible to their hearers. Devise a simple questionnaire and try it out

on your regular classes. You will probably discover with a shock that quite too much is being assumed as to their general knowledge.

F. *Rebuttal Preparation*[1]

1. Place for Refutation

Although separate speeches are set aside for its presentation, refutation should appear in the main speeches as well. A constructive speech should never be planned to occupy all of the time allotted to it; there should always be leeway for the introduction of refutation. In a ten minute speech, two minutes may be reserved for so-called initial rebuttal, after which the speech as planned is given. Much better is running rebuttal, the adaptation to preceding opposing arguments being made wherever it fits best into the planned speech. The ability to employ this sort of refutation is one of the surest tests of good debating. Considerable running rebuttal may be needed initially. Sometimes an opponent has made so powerful an impression that you cannot get a hearing until you break that effect, either by serious refutation, or by promising to consider the argument later in the speech, or by humor. The last-named device was most successfully used by Lincoln in one of his debates with Stephen A. Douglas. After a particularly deadly and telling speech by Douglas, Lincoln slowly arose to his full ungainly height, took off his old linen duster, deliberately folded it, and handed it to one of the men on the platform, remarking, with Biblical gravity: "Here, Paul, hold my garment while I stone Stephen."

A word of warning in this connection may not be out of place, however. Care must be taken in the introduction of this refutation material not to destroy the outline of the speech. It is very easy to spend so much

[1] If one wishes to find examples of effective refutation as employed in actual debate, he can do no better than to study the Lincoln-Douglas debates. At times the *Congressional Record* also contains up-to-the-minute illustrations that are useful.

time on an opponent's argument or to digress so frequently that the audience is unable to follow the speaker. Unless he deliberately abandons what he had planned to say and spends all or most of his time in refuting opponents' arguments, a speaker should not allow himself to be so turned from his original plans as to cause blurred organization and rambling incoherency.

2. Number and Length of Rebuttal Speeches

The usual arrangement is to allow each member of the team a rebuttal speech. This arrangement gives the valuable training of rebuttal work to all the speakers and it also affords a fairer basis for comparison of the teams' debating abilities.

Rebuttal speeches are usually about half as long as constructive speeches. The last rebuttal speech on each side is sometimes a minute or two longer than the others so as to allow extra time for summarizing.

A single rebuttal speech for each team is not uncommon, however. Such an arrangement has the merit of shortening the debate. If, under these circumstances, the usual procedure is followed of having the negative open the rebuttal, it means that their chance in pure rebuttal immediately follows their last constructive speech. Indeed, sometimes the two speeches are combined. To overcome this difficulty, the affirmative may have two rebuttals and may lead in rebuttal. Total time allowed the two teams can be equalized in one way or another.

There are those who advocate doing away with rebuttal speeches entirely, on the ground that thereby "canned" speeches will be made largely impossible. There is much to be said for this innovation, and it certainly deserves a trial. If "canned" speeches cannot be eliminated by less heroic measures, more and more teachers are going to adopt it.

3. Working Suggestions

Since rebuttal is so important and is effective only as the result of the most careful preparation, the director has a real responsibility in seeing that such preparation is both thorough and sensible. I add "sensible" to "thorough" because in actual practice that element is not always present.

(1) All the main opposing arguments need to be considered and definite answers worked out for them, but don't let your students *memorize* or *read* answers unless you want them to seem like parrots. Should there be written rebuttal cards, then? By all means, but in outline, not complete speech form.

Here are reproduced two rebuttal cards, the first an inclusive affirmative card meant to cover the various possible things opponents of the McNary-Haugen Farm Relief Bill may say regarding cooperation as a substitute. All of the points listed may not be used in rebuttal, but they are there, ready to be drawn on and elaborated, depending on what points opponents emphasize.

The second card, dealing with government control of railroads, is specific, corresponding to the individual evidence card.

REBUTTAL

Argument: Encouragement of cooperation preferable.

Answer:

1. They favor cooperation in which only members share cost. (Majority Cong. Rept. p. 11)
2. Coop. among such unified specialized groups as citrus growers not analogous.
3. Attempts to organize grain growers failed. Cf. U.S. Grain Growers. 1919-'20.
4. Present coops. ineffective. Cf. Sec. Jardine's report. p. 3.

REBUTTAL Labor under Govt. Operation	Herbert Hoover as Sec. of Commerce	Radio Address from Wash., D.C. Sept. 29, 1924

"Some have assumed that the political strength of this great mass of employees [in the public utilities] will enable them to dictate the election of legislative members and thus secure their desires. This means the creation of another bloc. . . perhaps the most dangerous tendency in our politics today.

It substitutes internal pull and external politics for individual endeavor. It puts a damper on achievement, a premium upon wire-pulling."

(2) These cards should be worked out by individuals and by groups. Here again group conference for the weighing and sifting of arguments can be most helpful, provided it is directed. Some student, or the coach if he is present, needs to act as leader, preferably at the blackboard, so that tangible results are obtained.

(3) In gathering rebuttal material, each individual should be responsible for defending the particular part of the case more or less definitely allotted to him, but at the same time specialization can easily be overdone both in gathering material and in using it in debate. Hence the group method of working out rebuttal points helps to familiarize everyone with the defense of their entire case and the attack on all the probable main arguments of their opponents.

(4) A team rebuttal box is a helpful device. In it, under index headings, appear rebuttal cards, such as those illustrated above, and other cards especially valuable. Here are some index headings taken from a negative rebuttal box on the question, "Resolved, that the Constitution of the United States should be amended to give Congress the power to regulate child labor": *Centralization—Interstate Problems—Uncertain Problem—Local Problem—State Efficiency—Concurrent*

Powers—Need—Progress—Past Experience—Enforcement—Public Opinion.

The team rebuttal box will receive most attention after the team for a given contest is pretty definitely known, for while teams are shifting in practice debates it is not so usable. Once the box is prepared (of course it never ceases to be added to!), all members of the team should familiarize themselves with its complete contents, so that any one of them could get up in debate rebuttal and handle intelligently and effectively any point there.

(5) Does this mean that there should be no specialization in rebuttal? Not at all. Unless there is a definite plan in advance, rebuttal will almost inevitably be scattered and ineffective. There should be a definite division of main points, so that each man knows exactly what he is responsible for defending and attacking. But when that is said, it must immediately be qualified, for one can never be sure that an opponent's case will develop as he expects it to.

In general, a debater should be responsible in rebuttal for the points he has made in his main speech, defending them and attacking arguments advanced by his opponents that fall under the same general headings. There are always some miscellaneous anticipated arguments to meet, and those should be divided among the team members as seems most promising. Since the "best laid plans" of debaters and coaches "gang aft agley" because opponents do the unexpected or unusual, too great specialization in rebuttal may seriously cripple a team. *Each* member, though a specialist on certain parts, must know the whole case and the complete rebuttal plans so that he can handle points with intelligence that he had expected his colleagues to take care of, and so that he can buttress them if their arguments are seriously attacked, when they no longer have an opportunity to reply.

(6) Not only should the possible arguments of opponents be considered and answers carefully worked out for them; all the possible opposing cases that can be thought of should be worked out and plans devised for meeting them in case they appear in an actual contest. Because this point appears here does not mean that the coach should furnish all the brain work in devising possible cases. He will do some of it, just as a football coach figures out new plays, but the students will offer many valuable suggestions if encouraged in the least.

(7) More than one debate has been ruined and more than one audience has been disgusted by wrangling over the meaning of terms and, less frequently, over the issues. If a debate concerns a technical subject on which serious disagreement is possible, prior agreement as to definitions will eliminate the possibility of misunderstanding. This may be done between the opposing teams or among all the members of a debate league. For example, some years ago, when Drake University and Colorado Agricultural College debated the proposition: "Resolved, that the closed shop should be adopted in American industry," definitions of both closed shop and open shop were agreed upon some weeks in advance, and the debate programs had these definitions printed on them. The contest was close and exciting, unmarred by any quibbling over terms.

In some high school debate leagues the state manager sends to all member schools, early in the season, an official interpretation of the question.

One of the best forms of insurance against disagreement over terms is to avoid highly technical or far-fetched interpretations. Better a common-sense view which seems sensible to the hearers. Then, if opponents give a far-fetched interpretation to the question, refuse to quibble repeatedly but leave it with the audience as to which is the more reasonable view.

(8) Try your people in various speaking orders in rebuttal just as you do in main speeches.[8] There is no necessary reason why three men should speak in the same order both times. As a matter of fact, it is often desirable to change the order. A team rarely consists of three members of equal ability, equal experience, and equal audience effectiveness. Though, as pointed out elsewhere, it is usually well to use the weakest speaker second in constructive speeches, in rebuttal a climactic order is generally most effective, the three speakers increasing in power as one follows another. Not only that—the inexperienced man, whether affirmative or negative, can give his best if his turn in rebuttal comes first, before argument and counter-argument have become too badly snarled.

(9) And finally, practice. Nothing will take its place. Practice debates, squad meetings for informal practice in arguing points back and forth, practice in meeting new cases presented by other squad members, individual or team practice in answering succinctly arguments thrown out by the coach.

But withal, practice that is thorough and *sensible*. Remember that you are training not merely for one contest but for life; hence aim not at letter-perfect parrots but at boys and girls, men and women, who can think on their feet and speak extemporaneously.

With thorough, systematic rebuttal preparation supplementing constructive preparation, any team should go to the platform knowing equally well two things: its own case and how to defend it, its opponents' case and how to attack it.[9]

III. Writing Speeches

Should debaters write speeches? Yes. There is much that the student may gain, in the way of concise-

[8] Cf. discussion of characteristics of respective team members farther on in this chapter.

[9] Collins and Morris. *Persuasion and Debate*. 1927. p. 188. Quoted by permission of Harper and Brothers, publishers.

ness, accuracy, and the persuasive use of English, by writing a debate speech. At the same time the coach is enabled to use the manuscript as a basis for specific criticisms and suggestions. If a student never writes out his ideas in orderly speech form, he will almost inevitably lessen his effectiveness by rambling incoherence, the use of vague general statements, and a lack of unity and balance.

Naturally there is a difference in the abilities of different individuals, but I have yet to see a high school or college debater, even though he has had considerable experience, who does not profit by carefully committing his ideas to writing.

Should debaters memorize these speeches? No. If you subscribe to the proposition that we are "teaching" debate in the sense of training for life rather than merely "coaching" for an immediate decision, you can see the reason for an emphatic negative answer. Public speaking situations in life seldom call for the memorized oration; they do, however, call for organized communicative extemporaneous speaking. The memorized debate speech is too frequently stiff, uncommunicative, and declamatory. You will note that I have not said that it is *always* so. I have heard speeches, thoroughly committed to memory, that were conversational and communicative and that were so well in hand that they could be departed from and returned to at will, whenever adaption to what opponents had said was necessary. A device, not infrequently used, to combine delivery of a set speech with extempore adaptation is that of initial rebuttal. If the time limit is ten minutes, two minutes, for example, at the outset may be set aside for extempore refutation of opponents' arguments, and then an eight minute set speech is delivered. Such an arrangement is far better than having no adaptation at all, and it may be a useful expedient for an inexperienced speaker. It does not produce a unified result, however,

either in subject matter or in presentation, for there is apt to be an obvious break between the extempore and memorized sections. The initial-rebuttal device should be regarded as a make-shift, never as a final method.

It is not necessary to wait until college days to train boys and girls to debate extemporaneously; high school students with a little encouragement and training become quite proficient. Better have some slight halting and stumbling coupled with evidence that the student is actively thinking at the moment of utterance than to be compelled to listen to an oration in the guise of a debate speech that runs blithely on without regard to what opponents have said and, so far as audience contact is concerned, plainly shows that the speaker has "set his mouth going and has then gone away and left it."

To avoid the rigidity and lack of communicativeness of the memorized speech and, at the same time, to secure unified organization and elegance of diction frequently lacking in the purely extemporaneous style, a compromise or combination method known as the block system is sometimes used. In this system the speech is memorized in blocks, between which the speaker extemporizes. Thus he may have an introduction and a conclusion and certain salient intervening sections committed to memory.

This method has some advantages but furnishes a poor standard inasmuch as the result is apt to be a patchwork of fluent declamatory sections interspersed with less confident extemporaneous passages.

What method, then, is best? In general, the extempore—growing out of thorough study, constructive thought-provoking squad debates and discussion, *and* written speeches, criticised and carefully rewritten more than once *but not memorized word for word*. Now you have a speech with the merits of both the memorized and the extempore methods: (1) unified organization, (2) smooth diction, for many phrases and expressions

in the written drafts will stick, and (3) the prime essential, adaptability—to opponents, colleagues, and circumstances. Inexperienced students can get much help as to constructing and phrasing speeches by hearing debates and reading debate speeches, preferably on subjects other than that with which they are working.

A final specific suggestion may not be out of place here. Don't have speeches so long as to require every available minute allowed for their delivery. No matter what style is used—extempore, memorized, or block—some time should be saved for refutation and adaptation. If a surprise case is met, it may be necessary to go further and throw over large parts of one or more speeches. Such a situation for the extemporaneous debater is a challenge; for the debater who slavishly memorizes it is a catastrophe.

IV. Practice Debates With Other Schools

The practice debates we have been considering, practice debates within the squad, are essential. At the same time, there is a danger that they will become more or less stale and mechanical as arguments pro and con become increasingly familiar. Hence the device, employed by many colleges and high schools, of practice debates with other teams. An important league debate is approaching. More or less informally by letter or telephone you arrange with a third institution for an extra contest. In it you use the same team you expect to use in the contest with your league opponent. The training they receive in meeting a new case of an actual opposing team is often worth several times that received in a squad debate. These outside debates necessarily are not used at the beginning of the season; the squad debates are an essential prerequisite. They may be judged, though if both teams are interested in the practice rather than the outcome, there is more freedom to try new arguments and new devices when there is no formal de-

cision. On the other hand, if at all possible one or more outside critics should be invited in to hear the discussion and criticise both teams afterwards. In Michigan, where there is a rather rigid state-wide high school debating league, more and more member schools are engaging in these practice debates, sometimes as regular audience affairs, sometimes as afternoon meetings when only the two squads are present.

There is another use for these "practice" debates. If a high school is a member of a league from which it will be eliminated if it loses a debate, it takes more nerve than some coaches have to give the less experienced members of the squad a chance in an interscholastic contest. Other coaches feel the same way. Why not arrange an extra debate or two, real "varsity" audience debates, in which it is agreed both schools will use their "second" teams or will at least use partly "second" teams? There may or may not be a decision; it is easier on the green debater to omit it, for he has plenty of trouble without the spectre of "losing."

These extra debates, judged or decisionless, with green teams or veterans, for practice or otherwise, furnish to the progressive coach a chance to try out various experiments in argument, organization, and style of debating.

Colleges, too, as already indicated, are using outside practice debates, for the same reasons and with the same returns as apply to the high schools. Often they arrange to take such contests before off-campus audiences, as before the assembly of a high school located between the two colleges.

V. The Final Team

Round table discussion, individual conferences, practice debates—the time at last comes when the members of the teams must be chosen who will represent the school in the real contest. This is clearly the coach's

business, for he has been working with the various people on the squad and knows what they can do. Rarely, if ever, should faculty colleagues or other outsiders make the selection on the basis of a given practice debate. Such an arrangement, though sometimes used, is fair to none of the parties concerned.

A. *Don't Pick the Final Team Too Early*

The whole squad should be kept on its toes, working for a place on the team, and that can't be done if you announce a month in advance that A, B, and C will constitute the team. Let-down in the efforts of the other squad members is inevitable, even though later debates are on the schedule. As to what is "too early," no final statement can be made. That depends on the length of time the squad has been working, the nature of the question, other debates on the schedule, experience of debaters, and various local and personal considerations. "Too early" must necessarily be a relative term, and each director must decide for himself how to meet the problem so as to secure maximum efficiency from those chosen for and those temporarily rejected from the final team. In the tentative time schedule at the end of this chapter, certain definite suggestions are offered as to when to choose the team.

B. *Characteristics of the Respective Speakers*

The question of when, however, is not so serious for many coaches as the question of how and what to choose. What are the characteristics of ideal speakers for the various team positions?

In general, it may be said that in a three-member team the weakest speaker should be placed second. It is, of course, understood that the weakness or strength of a speaker should be judged in terms of his or her probable effect on the audience. A good thinker may be

quite ineffective in establishing a dynamic contact with his hearers. Against the general principle of putting the weakest speaker in the middle, it should be pointed out that there may be times when a climactic order is desirable, the speakers increasing in power as they follow one another. In the great majority of cases, however, the general psychological principle holds: the most emphatic places are at the beginning and the end; hence put your best speakers in those positions.

Having laid down these general principles, I hasten to add a qualifying suggestion. Not merely in practice debates, but in actual contest debates, it is well, so far as practicable, to give your people a chance to speak in different positions. Because a boy seems to be an excellent opening speaker for the affirmative, don't *always* use him there. Give him a chance to develop his powers by speaking last; or even second, so that a second speaker may try his hand as opener. Debating is for training as well as decisions!

Though there is much similarity in the make-up of the ideal affirmative team and the negative team, still there is sufficient difference to warrant their separate treatment. It will, of course, occur to all teachers that the ideal team will rarely, if ever, be found. The best that one can do is to come as near the ideal as possible with the material at hand.

The First Affirmative Speaker, since he opens the entire discussion, must be able to present the subject, which is often one concerning which the audience knows very little, in such a way that his hearers will be informed and interested. To do that he must adapt and must talk in terms of their experience. He must give an impression of absolute fairness, and to that end, he must not argue too soon. Of course he cannot spend all his time in an impersonal introduction of the subject for discussion, but usually he advances his team's case farthest by not being noticeably controversial for the first part

of his speech. In delivery, he should be smoothly conversational and persuasive. Since nothing precedes to which he must adapt, his speech may well be memorized, provided it does not sound "canned."

Inexperienced speakers are sometimes put in the opening position because it is felt that they are safer where they can use a memorized speech and do not have to adapt. At the same time, it must be remembered that to break the ice is a difficult task, one that is often difficult for speakers who are used to appearing before audiences. The green speaker too often has a severe case of stage fright and as a result is anything but informal and communicative. Consequently his team's side of the argument gets away to an unfortunate start. These counterbalancing considerations the coach must bear in mind.

The Second Affirmative Speaker should excel in arguing, in clear, cogent thinking, and in the ability to express himself simply and to the point. He must be able to think on his feet so as to adjust to what the opening negative speaker has said and to support his preceding colleague, if the latter's arguments have been heavily attacked. The material with which he deals is often less inherently persuasive than that falling to the lot of the opening and closing speakers, and consequently his delivery may often be less smoothly persuasive. At the same time, it should be straight from the shoulder, direct, and communicative.

In general—of course no hard and fast rules can be made in such matters—the inexperienced speaker will fare best in second position. He does not have to break the ice, the exhilaration of the debate well started spurs him on, and opposing arguments are not yet numerous and complicated enough to be over-confusing.

The Third Affirmative Speaker, as closer of his team's constructive case, should be the strongest of the three speakers, both in delivery and in command of his

subject. He should have a sense of values and should be able to see the debate as a whole. He must be able to adapt at will, to attack and defend, and at the same time he must be fluent and powerful in delivery. He must have the ability to marshall facts and arguments convincingly, and, most important of all, he must be able to summarize with completeness and conclude with persuasive appeal that moves his hearers.

As compared with the affirmative, who present the new and defend it against attack (It is assumed that a proposition of policy is used), the negative team should be constantly on the offensive, attacking and offering objections to the affirmative proposals. Since the negative can never be sure just what sort of case the affirmative will present, they must be ready at all times to adapt. This fundamental difference in the tasks of the two teams influences the characteristics needed in the members of the respective teams. Affirmative speakers must be good salesmen; negative speakers must be good prosecuting attorneys.

The First Negative Speaker, combined with courtesy and good sportsmanship, of course, must have the ability to make a telling attack at the outset. He must carry the fight to his opponents. He must be able to analyze the affirmative position as outlined by their first speaker and to set forth such serious objections as to raise grave doubts in the minds of his hearers, doubts which his colleagues never allow to subside. This can very seldom be done without intelligent, dynamic, extemporaneous adaptation. So far as delivery is concerned, he may possibly be somewhat less smooth than the first affirmative, but he must be an effective speaker, to avoid an unfavorable contrast with the preceding opponent.

It may be wise, at times, to use an inexperienced man on the negative team in first place rather than second, inasmuch as by the time the second speaker appears the conflicting arguments of the two teams may have become

confusingly criss-crossed. This observation holds even truer for rebuttal speakers.

The Second Negative Speaker's characteristics are similar to those of the corresponding affirmative speaker so far as ability to adapt and to think and speak straight are concerned. He must also be an effective attacker, raising new objections and re-establishing his colleague's arguments if attacked.

The Third Negative Speaker, like the third affirmative, should be the strongest member of his team. He, too, must have the ability for summary and final persuasive appeal, but his summary stresses weaknesses and evils, and his appeal is for rejection rather than acceptance. He as well as his colleagues, however, must usually avoid giving the impression of being purely destructive in criticism and opposition.

Even in the case of a counterproposition, which the last speaker usually presents, the attack on the affirmative proposals never lets up. The negative speakers must all be on the offensive, and this offensive comes to a climax with the last speaker.

C. *Alternates*

In the squad system, where all the members are actively trying for a place on the team, there is no place for the old-fashioned alternate, who, by a process of tryouts was assigned to this innocuous and incentiveless place for the season. No matter what plan he follows, a coach should never put all his eggs in one basket and have no reserves upon whom he can call in case one of the speakers he expected to use falls ill or is otherwise prevented from debating. My point is that it is better to have several potential alternates available on the squad than to have a definitely designated permanent alternate.

For purposes of recognition and encouragement, it is often desirable to designate on printed programs or

otherwise that for a given debate a certain person is alternate. This individual should earn this slight honor by conscientious work. Usually he will be the one who has come nearest to making the team. And the honor should not be an empty one. This temporary alternate should meet with the team in their final intensive conferences so as to be able to fill in if a regular member cannot speak. If an extra squad member accompanies the team out of town, it is he who should go, prepared to serve in case of emergency.

D. *Intensive Training*

When the final team (or teams) has been chosen, some special intensive work for and with them is necessary. Let them function as a team against the stiffest opposition that can be found in the squad or outside. They should meet as a group, with and without the coach, to thresh out details of rebuttal. Each should be thoroughly familiar with what his colleagues plan to say.

It is after the team is chosen that special work must be done on speeches. If the squad is large, it is something of a task for an instructor carefully to correct manuscripts from all the members in the earlier stages of preparation. As the time for choosing the final team approaches, however, all, or at least several of the most likely members, should be set to work at writing speeches, to be criticised by the coach.

When on the basis of these speeches and squad work, the final team is chosen, intensive work on speeches must be speeded up—wording, detailed content, and delivery. At this stage the coach will need to give considerable time in private conferences and in offering suggestions on the delivery of speeches. Sometimes in high school it can be arranged for team members to give parts of their speeches and to have brief scrimmages before speech, English, and social science classes. This is val-

uable practice, especially if the team members are not used to speaking in public.

Because use of the extempore method makes it difficult for some students to develop the necessary fluency and fire in delivery, the device is recommended by some directors of having them practice delivery of selections from moving deliberative speeches, as, for example Bryan's *Cross of Gold,* Beecher's Liverpool Address, Claude Bowers' keynote address at the Democratic National Convention of 1928.

To give confidence and to save valuable time in the actual debate, it is occasionally worth while to practice rebuttal points aloud under the coach's direction. One method is for the coach to fire opposing arguments at the team in rapid order, giving them time merely to jot them down, quickly divide them among themselves for answering, and then get up, one after the other, and speak the allotted rebuttal time. Or more time may be allowed for preparing answers. Or the time limit for speaking may be extended. Or other squad members may participate in firing opposing arguments. Or the arguments may be sorted out in leisurely conference and practice had in answering them afterward. Then too, this sort of rebuttal exercise may be had between an individual speaker and the coach in a personal conference. The possibilities are numberless.

Of course constructive criticism and suggestion accompanies this sort of practice, and in this criticism students as well as instructor may well participate. Often the coach should interrupt a speaker to offer suggestions, even to the extent of having the speaker go over the point again. Much can be accomplished by striking while the iron is hot.

Although such practice is unnecessary with mature, experienced speakers, with most high school and many college debaters it makes for increased effectiveness in fluency and pointed accuracy of statement. Every de-

bater, no matter how experienced, may profitably practice rebuttal *aloud to himself*.

Need it be added that all of this is training in extemporaneous, not memorized, speaking?

VI. A Suggested Coaching Schedule

As already emphatically pointed out, no iron-clad rule can be laid down as to when this or that particular step should be taken. Each director must adapt his course of procedure to circumstances, and they are legion, of bewildering variety. For the usual American-style debate six weeks after the squad is chosen is perhaps an average preparation period. It may well be as much as three weeks longer in high school, it may be as short as a month in college.

Whatever the period, the main point for the coach to remember is this: *Don't let things pile up at the last.* Six weeks looks like a long time, but after it is half gone, the remainder vanishes with frightful rapidity. Many a poor debate can be traced to too much leisure at the beginning and too much hurry at the end.

The following outline, which is purposely very general, is offered as a suggestion, nothing more. It is assumed that the squad is already chosen and that the first debate is six weeks distant.

First week —Individual reading, round table discussion, possibly practice debates.

Second week —Reading, discussion, practice debates, tentative issues and contentions formulated.

Third week —Round table discussion, practice debates, cases tentatively outlined.

Fourth week—Round table discussion, practice debates, cases pretty definitely settled, work started on written speeches.

FIFTH WEEK —Round table discussion, practice debates, final team chosen, intensive work on speeches.

SIXTH WEEK —Discussion and practice debates intensively centered about final team, individual and team work on delivery and rebuttal.

VII. OTHER PLANS[10]

A Debate-Training Schedule[11]

How can I organize and conduct an effective training schedule so as to assure the attainment of the objective of debating?

This is a question that confronts every debate coach, whether he be new to the work or a veteran. The one is desirous of starting right, the other is endeavoring to improve his methods as a result of his experience.

The objective that every debate coach should strive for is the development in each debater, to the extent of his capacities, of the ability to analyze and reason on his feet in public speech, preparing him for the most influential, practical participation in the argumentative and persuasive phases of life.

In presenting the following suggestions and model debate-training schedule, I do not hold it out as a cure for all evils, but its use has reduced them to a minimum and achieved, to a reasonable degree, the debate objective. I present it as an example of a well-organized, planned, procedure that challenges coaching to be efficient, thorough, intensive, and effective for all students who are qualified.[12]

[10] In addition to those offered here, Ruth E. Huston offers similar suggestions, though more detailed, in an article entitled Debate Coaching in High School, *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education.* 10:127-43. April, 1924.

[11] Quoted, by permission of the author, Clarence E. Dammon of Purdue University, and the publishers, from the *Supplement* of the *Quarterly Journal of Speech.* 15:45-54. November, 1929.

[12] I wish to acknowledge my indebtedness to Professor N. J. Weiss for much of the content of the paper; many of the ideas and the model schedule are the outgrowth of his experience as a coach in both high school and college. At the present time it is the system by which the Albion College debating teams are trained by Professor Weiss.

Let us consider how we should secure our debaters. The degree of firmness and control that is exercised in this very first move determines, to a great extent, how much control you will be able to exercise throughout the rest of the season. Here is where we must give attention to the claim of opponents of coaching that it is for the training of a few selected students. In the first place, it is only right that debating should expect a reasonable prerequisite by way of fundamentals of speech, just as a study of American literature is preceded by a beginning course in English. In the second place, debaters are not selected any more than students are sifted for other courses. If they can not do the work in a certain department, they are either asked to leave, or they are failed. The only difference is that we have this advantage: the student does not have to waste a semester in debating to discover that he is incapable of mastering it.

I do not believe in long, tedious, and monotonous tryouts. To have a long series of debates on which to judge a group of aspirants and then at the end drop all but six or twelve is useless. It has often appealed to me as a last resort when nothing else could be thought of.

As a nucleus for the squad, we should first consider veteran debaters as already members. It is absurd to put them through tryouts. If anyone of them shows too much affectation or swelling of the head, it is only proper for the coach to handle it as a matter of discipline. He should be reprimanded, and if necessary, dismissed. The freshmen and new material should be asked to have a personal consultation with the coach and also give a five minute talk on the subject to be debated. From these two things the coach can judge his qualifications. Those beginners who do not qualify are not exactly dropped, but are given to understand that it would be better for them to put that year into learning the fundamentals of speech. If they are really interested in debating, they will do this and not take it as a failure to make the team, but rather as a means to an end, and as part of the training process. These individuals are then kept under the constant surveillance of the coach with a view to the following year.

If the squad comes to more than twenty-one, the coach may well give consideration to the organization of a freshman squad. A separate schedule can be arranged and the same organization set up for them. The ideal number, as we speak of an ideal

number for any class from the pedagogical standpoint, is either twelve or eighteen. If you keep them all on one squad, you will naturally use judgment in teaming them, and the freshmen will participate according to their merit.

It should be planned so that every man is permitted to debate at least once, and twice if possible, in a real debate. If you hold to this rule, every debater will look forward to the debates and have an incentive to remain throughout the season. It is well to have a few extra debates scheduled, and participation in them considered a special privilege. Debating trips are also a strong incentive.

With a group thus formed we proceed to the training of them. In my discussion of this, I wish to use as a basis the *Teaching Cycle* as presented by Professor Henry C. Morrison of the University of Chicago in his book on secondary education. He advances this cycle as containing the logical steps in teaching that will produce the most effective learning process. I will paraphrase many of his ideas and the title, calling it the "coaching cycle." There is no reason why the academic procedures of ordinary teaching can not be practiced in the coaching of debaters. I also strongly advocate a definite time of meeting. It is not too much to have meetings regularly every day for one hour, except when actual debates are scheduled. The time should not exceed two hours at any one time. Meeting one hour every day is much better than meeting intermittently during the week for unreasonable periods. This intensive organization should last for not less than seven weeks, or not less than thirty-five meetings. More time can be allotted to the various phases as the coach sees fit.

The coaching cycle has five steps, consisting of Exploration, Presentation, Assimilation, Organization and Recitation. In order to secure the best possible debaters, each of these steps must be carefully followed through and each one of their purposes fully realized before advancing to the next. The number of meetings that should be given over to each of these phases is problematical. But for the sake of example, I am setting down what I consider is the minimum number that can possibly be spent on each one and secure satisfactory results. Let us take up each of these phases.

The first one is the *exploration phase*. For the first two meetings there should be no mention of debating. Forget that

that is the purpose of the whole thing. Consider the meeting merely a group of students who have assembled to clarify their ideas on a subject that has arisen. The object is to ascertain what the present background of each debater is. Nothing should be said about what some one else thinks, but only about what the student thinks, what he knows personally, and what his opinions are. We are after the original reactions to the situation. All the related content is brought to the front and is focused on what lies before. The effect is one of arousing curiosity and setting up a genuine motivation. The whole phase becomes one of orientation. In the second meeting, the emphasis should be shifted from the personal opinions of the debaters to what they think the public attitude is. In the third meeting this can be summarized, and the coach should give careful and detailed instruction as to how the students should start their research. Now is the time to start talking debating. But do not fire all you know at them at once. The five questions of issue should be presented and the debaters instructed to use them as the basis for analyzing all material. They are:

1. Is the present policy unsatisfactory?
2. Is it necessary to abolish the old policy to remedy the situation?
3. Will the new policy remedy the situation?
4. Will the new policy remedy the situation without introducing new evils that would make it undesirable?
5. Is it the best plan?

At the fourth meeting, we enter the *presentation* phase. About five meetings should be given over to it. The objective is the development of an understanding of the question as a whole. Debaters are introduced to the problem and the problem to them. Out of it comes an appropriate adaptation. When this phase is completed, the motivation should be well established. The stimulus factor of the coaching cycle is completed. Each member should do research and bring the results to the group. It should be a period of sharing of basic knowledge and progressing together in understanding the question. Thorough discussions should be held on the contributions, and each debater held responsible for the developments from these considerations. The coach must be alert and keep members on the right track. They can easily go off on a tangent. At the fifth meeting under this

phase, the coach should make a summary of the question as a whole.

Then the squad is prepared to enter the *assimilation* phase, which should take about nine meetings. The objective of this is an intensive investigation toward the end of developing the question into its various phases and issues. Up to this time there has been nothing definite in the way of personal assignment. It has been a period of building a foundation upon which the new work could be laid. The individual now comes to a direct learning of the question and applying sound logic and reasoning to it. He receives an intensive training in the art of studying, thinking through, and reasoning out a question. The function of the coach at this point is very vital. He must constantly urge the debater to go just a step farther. He must be able at this point to correct weak or fallacious reasoning or interpretations. Thus we achieve the assimilation factor of the cycle. At the first meeting in this phase there should be a designation by the group of the various issues or divisions into which the question breaks up. There should then be a classification of the material under these headings. Each debater should be assigned to thorough research on one of these divisions, and he should be held responsible for facts on that particular part when they are needed by the group. Discussion at all times on the findings is essential. The coach should switch the debaters from one division to another. At the beginning of this phase should also start the schedule of personal interviews. Each debater should have at least two fifteen-minute private conferences a week with the coach to talk over the personal problems and progress.

During the investigation of a question, there always arise certain disputed matters, questions within the question, that are debatable. Often, when settled, these disputes will alter the entire approach to the main question. The easiest way to get at the facts and arguments on these points, placing them before the whole squad at once, is by having informal debates between two or four of the members. This will also introduce them to active debating in a non-deliberative manner. It might be well not to tell them that they are going to debate, but simply that you want them to discuss the disputed questions pro and con before the squad. If told that they are to debate, they are quite likely to become stiff and formal. That is the last thing that is wanted. Above all we want them to enjoy debating. There is no more

opportune time to get them to do so than when they are in the heat of an argument as to whether this fact or situation is true or not true. Then is the time to put them on the platform and tell them to go to it. The last meeting of this phase should be spent in general summary of the question in the light of the extensive research. It is always interesting at this point to compare the opinions now held and facts known with those that were expressed at the first meetings of the exploration phase. This will bring home to the debaters how far they have gone from that point to which they will have to revert in order to pick up an average audience and bring them to the same point at which the debaters have arrived.

The fourth period is that of the *organization* phase. Eight meetings should cover the work. The debater gathers up all of his material and constructs an outline in which the argument is developed in logical and convincing order. The debater is forced to assemble his thoughts and focus them upon a clear expression of his understanding of the question. He is now expressing what he has acquired. The first five meetings should be spent in organizing the material into an affirmative and negative case. This is done by the group as a whole. One member goes to the blackboard, and as the group develops the issues and case, he places them down in brief form. At the fifth meeting the two completed cases are compared and discussed. In this way, all profit by the work, and a case that has been thoroughly tested is the result. It has to stand any challenge that any debater desires to advance. Often one debater, seeing a weakness in the case in the light of something that he has found in research, takes a stand and fights for his position. He proves his contention and saves the whole squad from a fallacy. The last three meetings of this phase are given over to the debaters for the purpose of working out the speeches that have been assigned to them. This is done individually and speeches are *not* written out, but are outlined in detail. These outlines are gone over carefully in private conference with the coach. He puts the debater through a severe test to determine whether or not he can prove every stand that he has taken in his outline.

A word might be said here about the assigning of speeches. The coach should divide the squad into teams and assign every debater to a speech on each side. Of course one can not set a definite rule for this; much depends upon the capacity, ability,

and personality of the individual. The whole objective is that every debater should be ready to debate on either side of a question with only a moment's notice, and be able to produce an acceptable piece of debating. For the sake of an example to be given in the outline program to follow, I have selected a squad of twelve and the (A) and the (a) respectively represent Affirmative and Negative (B-b) (C-c), (D-d). The numbers represent the individuals. This gives an idea of the model interchanging of speakers from one side to another.

Finally we have the *recitation* phase. This should contain approximately ten meetings. The objective here is the acquiring of experience in expression. Up to this time there has been an acquisition of a thorough understanding, and an assimilation of a large body of facts. Now he is to give expression to his individual understandings in the form of speeches and complete debates. He is forced to arrange his material in a logical and coherent order on his feet. He must develop the power to set forth intellectual content in language forms on his feet. This objective is attained by a series of full debates and also of dialectical debates. I agree with Everett Lee Hunt of Swarthmore College that the "neglected method of argument, the dialectical debate, is of great value. It makes clear the unity of the process in the variety of the material and brings in the testing element of the cross-examination."[13] Taking it for granted that two teams are to meet in interscholastic debate, the last meeting will be a conference between the two teams chosen and the coach for general discussion.

A feature which might not appeal to some, but which has proved of inestimable value, must be mentioned here. During the last ten days, arrangements are made for an extra half hour of practice. If you trust the debater to go over his outline and talk it through aloud in his room, nine chances out of ten it never will be done. No man can do credit to himself unless he is thoroughly familiar with what he is going to say and how it is to be said. It does not have to be memorized, but there must be a thorough familiarity with the sequence of thought to be followed.

This appeals to me as an ideal organization for a debate-training schedule. One can quickly sense that we have discarded

[13] From article Dialectic—A Neglected Method of Argument, by E. L. Hunt. *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education.* 7:221 ff. June, 1921.

the old system of exposing the debaters to a bulk of debate technique and then giving them a question on which to apply it. Instead we give them the question, and as they work on the research and analysis of it, we create a demand for a knowledge of the debate technique, and then proceed to inject it. The whole process becomes purposeful. It is nothing new or fantastic. It has proved successful in training a large group of unselected pupils without any short-cut methods.

A Debate Training Schedule

Basis:

1. Seven weeks; thirty-five meetings.
2. Five meetings a week.
3. Five phases of the Morrison teaching cycle.
4. A squad of twelve debaters.

Meetings:

First week

Exploration Phase:

1. Informal discussion of the background that each student has on the question.
2. Continuation of discussion to determine what the public attitude and conception of it is.
3. Instruction by the coach as to how the research should be carried out. Present the five questions of issue.

Presentation phase:

4. This period should be spent in reading the most important articles and sources that will give a general acquaintance with the scope of the problem.
5. Work of previous meeting continued. Discussion of material.

Second week

1. Further research and discussion.
2. Further research and discussion.
3. A summary of the whole question should be made by the coach, further instruction in research given, and the general direction of the research determined.

Assimilation phase:

4. A designation of the various fields or divisions into which the material might be logically divided,

Third week

1. Set each man to work to do research on special divisions of the question and accumulate all possible information on that particular part.
2. Discussion of research and switching of divisions.
3. Continue research and discussion.
4. Discussion of any disputable questions and arrangement for informal discussion by two or four of the debaters.
5. Informal discussion of disputed questions.

Fourth week—

1. Informal discussion. Instruction by coach in logic.
2. General discussion of the question as a whole in the light of the extensive research.

Organization phase:

3. Arrangement of the affirmative arguments worked out by the group. Brief.
4. Continue work on the affirmative.
5. Work on the negative case.

Fifth week:

1. Continue work on the negative.
2. General discussion of both cases. Instruction in debate technique, especially of constructive work.

The following is a typical assignment of debaters to speeches and arrangement of the teams for a workable schedule of debates. The large and small letters represent the Affirmative and the Negative respectively. The numbers are for the individuals.

Affirmative:	A	B	C	D
1st	1	4	7	10
2nd	2	5	8	11
3rd	3	6	9	12
Negative:	**a**	**b**	**c**	**d**
1st	11	12	6	3
2nd	10	7	1	4
3rd	9	8	5	2

3. The individuals prepare outlines for the assigned speeches in detail.
4. Same as 3.
5. Same as 4.

Sixth week

Recitation phase:

1. Combination A-a in debate.
2. Dialectic between D-c. These are chiefly for rebuttal practice; instruction in refutation should be given at the same time.
3. Combination B-b in debate.
4. Dialectic between C-d.
5. General rebuttal practice and arrangement.

Seventh week

1. Combination C-c in debate.
2. Dialectic between A-b in debate.
3. Combination D-d in debate.
4. Selection of those who are to compose the teams in the interscholastic clash. General rebuttal and cross examination of anyone by anyone.
5. Conference with the coach by the selected teams.

Coaching Debates: Purpose and Method[14]

(NOTE: This article in its full form can be found in the *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education* for March 1918. At that time it had been used with much success for several years at the College of Law of the University of Southern California. What are probably its distinctive features are its emphasis on squad "wrangling," the extremely large number of practice debates, and the close coaching with the end of winning debates. It will be noted that the views here expressed differ at various points from those held by the author of this book.)

The true function of argumentation and debate is to supply the crucible, wherein the student shall test his knowledge and

[14] From article by H. N. Wells. Quoted by permission of the National Association of Teachers of Speech.

foment his creative impulsions. . . In other words, it is in debate that the student is forced to use his entire mental equipment to practical purposes.

Since democracy represents the right and opportunity for mutual expression, it connotes strife. Essentially, it means the inherent and reciprocal right to *fight* for ideals. It follows, therefore, that the larger conception of the business of the debate coach is the training of men for intellectual combat. Debaters must be *fighters*. That method of coaching which develops the best fighter is the correct system, for, while it is calculated to win debate contests, it is also calculated to excite and hold the interested attention of the general student body for the reason that it is real preparation for intense and useful life. . .

(1) Establish a preliminary squad for rebuttal training.

These classes in rebuttal should wrangle (I use the term advisedly) over every conceivable subject of current interest. The coach should enter into the fray, and, while directing thought into the most interesting and legitimate channels, excite by every wile the most spirited interchange of ideas. . .

(2) The "try-out" should be a test of rebuttal strength.

Construction and organization will develop as the training proceeds; power in rebuttal requires constant practice. Select the rebutters from the try-outs. Select no teams at the try-outs. Let the try-out judges select *every* contestant who shows promise for the ensuing year, giving no grades; ranking of the contestants should be prohibited. Every man selected is placed in the "final squad." A general subject should be announced two or three weeks before the try-out. One hour before the try-out the contestants should draw lots for place and side. Then the specific resolution should be announced. This forces extempore speaking and rebuttal. The first speaker on the affirmative should close the try-out, and be judged solely on his last speech.

(3) The entire "final squad" is put to work upon the resolution for the first debate of the season.

The size of the final squad is immaterial; "the more the merrier."... The side of the resolution elected should never be announced; the squad should develop both sides of it. All material should be carefully preserved for the use of the team, when chosen. Meetings of the squad should be held three or four times a week; there the free-for-all wrangles of the rebuttal classes should continue, but with more specific direction toward sound analysis. Indeed this is our method of analysis! With twenty-five to fifty minds concentrating upon a common effort, very little vital material is overlooked, and the question is substantially exhausted in a short time. . .

(4) Six weeks prior to the contest the *coach* selects the teams.

Note that the *coach* selects the teams. No one else is competent to do this. The coach alone is in a position to pass upon the qualifications of his men to debate the specific subject, their adaptability to each other, and the many intimate factors which enter into the composition of an effective team.

Note, further, that the coach selects *teams* (a negative and an affirmative), not a *team,* even when but one side of the resolution is to be debated. The rule is: "Two teams for every debate, and four teams for every simultaneous [dual] debate."

(5) The teams must meet and debate the question clear through, including rebuttal, *every day* until the day of the debate. The coach must meet with them and listen to every speech and every rebuttal.

Now the real work begins. The teams should fight it out no less than some forty times before they go upon the debate platform. They should try to overcome each other by every conceivable means during this period, and, if they are held sternly to the program, there is small probability that they will be surprised by any stratagem of their opponents. . .

(6) No team is irrevocably elected: the teams are always fighting for their places.

Every team which debates should fight for the honor with

a second team, *right up to the date of the debate.* . . This gives training to more men and distributes the benefits further.

(7) The squad is set to work upon the next subject of debate.

The squad is put to work again, immediately following the selection of the team, and the above process is repeated. When a team has finished one contest, it should go back into the squad and contest for place on another team.

(8) The first step in the preparation of a debate is the establishment of a theory of the case.

How do we know that we have established the correct theory, before exhaustive research has been made? We don't know, but that is not important. A more pertinent inquiry is this: How can intelligent research be made before a theory is adopted? How will the debater know what to read and what to collect? It is of primary importance that a theory be adopted. However, the preliminary "wrangle" is apt to demonstrate the approximately correct theory, particularly if sound criticism on the part of the coach has directed the argument and research into right channels. . . When the true theory is finally developed, it is usually found to be the correct theory for both affirmative and negative, and the two sides will converge upon it, albeit for the purpose of deducing contrary conclusions. . .

(9) Briefs, if necessary, are never drawn until debates are ready for their final writing.

I do not undervalue brief-drawing; but the repeated contests of the training period are apt to operate in lieu of many formal processes. Of course, the individual debaters will brief their arguments, perhaps daily, to aid their individual constructions. . .

Do we write our constructive speches? Yes, nearly always, but we are prepared by the shifting daily contest to throw them away, and extemporize, frequently to the improvement of the debate. . .

The system tends to establish certain definite lines of attack and defense in which the language becomes very familiar through

repetition. But this is not analogous to what is ordinarly termed a "memorized" or "set" speech; . . . if set in any sense, it is a condensed and corrected substance of argument first extemporized in actual debate, and tested in the cross-fire of actual contest. . .

The University of Nebraska "Think Shop" [15]

Professor Miller Moore Fogg, for twenty-five years, carried on the direction of the Debate Seminary or "Think Shop" at the University of Nebraska, until his death in May 1926. His method was always to center attention on a thorough preparation of the facts in every case, and yet he did not overlook the essentials of speaking or delivery. For years Professor Fogg trained teams which gained a wide reputation for clear, logical, and accurate thinking. He never allowed his men to appear on the platform until they had ransacked all the libraries on the topics under debate. Great quantities of information were usually collected, carefully filed away for use of all his students, and revised from time to time. Altogether the material rather than the method was stressed.

About 1920 Professor Fogg also introduced into the method of Nebraska the non-decision debate. He was one of the first to take attention away from preparing to win a case or decisions of the judges and to substitute a forum of public discussion open to all shades and varieties of opinion. Following his method, Nebraska has not engaged in judged debates of the conventional type in a decade. More recently the forum debate, on invitation of some club or other group, has almost entirely replaced the regular campus contest between college teams. Professor Fogg never claimed that his type of debate was superior to all others, but he found it most convenient and most productive of interest under local conditions.

[15] Quoted from a personal letter from Professor H. Adelbert White, in charge of forensics at the University of Nebraska.

CHAPTER V

THE COACH SPEAKS

I. General Suggestions
   - A. Take Nothing for Granted on the Part of the Audience
   - B. Do not Use Authorities Too Frequently
   - C. Do not Try to Do Too Much

II. Rebuttal Suggestions

III. Suggestions For The Affirmative

IV. Suggestions For The Negative

V. Delivery: Some Do's And Don't's

VI. Strategy
   - A. Some Strategic Devices
   - B. Strategy of Putting One's Best Foot Forward
   - C. Strategy of Attacking At The Weakest Point
   - D. Strategy of Staying Off Thin Ice
   - E. Strategy of Leading Opponents On
   - F. Strategy of Admitting
   - G. Strategy of "Assuming For the Sake of Argument"
   - H. Strategy of Stealing Opponents' Thunder
   - I. Strategy of Not Showing One's Hand
   - J. Strategy of Raising Objections
   - K. Strategy of Playing Opponents Off Their Feet
   - L. Strategies of Special Refutation Devices
   - M. Strategy of the Unexpected Case.

This chapter is designed as a practical help for the director in offering suggestions to his debaters. It consists largely of such suggestions, worded so as to apply directly to the student.

I. General Suggestions

A. *Take Nothing for Granted on the Part of the Audience*

(1) The more you know about a question, the more danger there is of talking over the heads of your audi-

ence. You are a specialist; the usual debate audience has, at best, only a very general idea of what the whole question is about. Remember that fact constantly and talk in terms of your hearers' experience. Proceed on the assumption that if they can possibly misunderstand, they will. Therefore be clear, make plain arguments, explanations, evidence. Use simple phraseology. Repeat important points that you especially wish to have stick.

(2) Organize the material you present definitely about issues and contentions. Such organization may be obvious or it may be indirect. The important point is that you know clearly yourself where you are going and what steps you will use to get there, and that you so organize what you have to say that your hearers can follow you in the steps and arrive at the destination you plan for them. Such organization is imperative both for the individual speaker and for the team.

(3) Don't be afraid to use plenty of partitions, transitions, and summaries. Let your hearers know where they are going, take them with you from point to point, summarize what has been accomplished. An especially effective form of summary is the contrasting or balanced summary.[1] It is particularly effective in concluding rebuttal speeches for the entire debate but may be used for a single issue earlier. In this form of summary a speaker magnifies, within the limits of truth of course, what he or his team has established and minimizes the arguments and evidence of opponents.

(4) In establishing a point, make clear its relationship to your entire case, and possibly to that of opponents. Show how the whole case is strengthened, or weakened, as may be, by the establishment of this point. Similarly with the evidence you present to prove the point itself. Remember that the audience will get lost

[1] An illustration of the balanced summary, from a recent intercollegiate debate, is found in Appendix IV.

if you give them half a chance. In a summarizing sentence, connect argument and supporting evidence.

(5) Don't wear your audience out with abstractions and detailed statistics. Be concrete and graphic. Instead of declaring that "a battleship costs a vast amount," be concrete and say that "it costs $25,000,000," and then be graphic as well as concrete and show what $25,000,000 will do in terms of schools, roads, or hospitals. It is much more telling to show an audience that establishment of state unemployment insurance will cost "every person in this audience" ten dollars than to say it will take $40,000,000 from the state treasury.

Note that round figures have been used in the foregoing examples. Except under very special conditions, avoid detailed figures. The audience's saturation point for figures is soon reached, even for round figures. Don't make your hearers dizzy and disgusted by reeling off detailed figures. Instead of 13,451,324 say 13½ million; instead of 148,369 say 148,000; instead of 4,461 say forty-five hundred; instead of 3.62 say 3-3/5.

(6) Similarly, avoid too frequent and too detailed references. It is not necessary to give page references unless you are challenged. Such wording as this is sufficient: "As W. H. Taft, writing in the *Outlook* for January 7, 1925 points out." Or this: "Professor F. W. Taussig of Harvard has long been regarded as one of our greatest economists. In his *Principles of Economics* he points out the following basic objections to subsidies. . ."

B. *Do Not Use Authorities Too Frequently*

Do some thinking for yourself. When you do use authorities, make them agree with you. That is, in general don't present expert opinion boldly as though a given statement in itself is proof. Word your reference something like this: "As Professor X points out. . ."

Or "To show you we are not alone in this view, consider these words from Mr. Y, whose judgment you all respect."

If your opponents constantly quote authorities as a substitute for reasoning of their own, don't hesitate to ridicule them gently or to point out to the audience that though some expert testimony may be needed, it cannot take the place of genuine argument. Often it is possible to say something to the effect that "We too have authorities, such as A, B, and C, but we were under the impression that this debate was between the teams on the platform rather than opposing so-called authorities." An appeal to hearers to weigh opposing arguments and not be influenced by imposing names may be effective if it is not apologetic. In a recent debate on the abolition of Greek-letter social organizations, an affirmative speaker thus cleverly offset the effect of an expert testimony quotation by an opponent: "The authority quoted by the negative is a fraternity man. We hope to hold our own against the three advocates of fraternities who are on the platform. We do not wish to face four opponents."

C. *Do Not Try to Do Too Much*

Do not try to cover too many points or present too much evidence in any speech or in the case as a whole. Your hearers can take in only a few main arguments. Don't confuse them with a mass of details. Remember that in audience effect, *how* you deliver may be quite as important as *what* you deliver. If you try to cover too much ground, it means you will speak too fast.

Develop the ability to telescope. Even though you plan your speech in advance so as not to be crowded for time, adapting to opponents may force you to leave your speech unfinished unless you can condense. Leave out the less important, speed up a bit if necessary, but get your main points presented. That is telescoping.

II. Rebuttal Suggestions

(1) The first requirement for the effective presentation of refutation is an attitude of fairness. Quote and represent opponents honestly, take no unfair advantages, and demand the same sort of treatment for yourself. If you are misrepresented, keep your temper but see that the audience understands the real facts.

(2) Don't try to refute everything your opponents say. You can't do it, no matter how hard you try, for if the question is a really debatable, two-sided one, you haven't a corner on the sound arguments and evidence. What intelligent people are concerned with is the preponderance of good or evil, strength or weakness involved. Such being the case, analyze your opponent's arguments, ignore the unimportant, and center your fire on his supporting pillars. Aim at them as your target rather than all out-doors, and you'll be more apt to hit something.

(3) This means that you will definitely organize your rebuttal around issues and main contentions. Don't leave it for your hearers to do this organizing; do it for them in so many words. The following opening sentence of a rebuttal speech is an illustration: "One of the main points of disagreement seems to be that of whether the Filipinos have shown real capacity for self government. Let us consider, under this head, various conflicting arguments that have been advanced by the two teams."

A corollary is this general principle: The fewer the points in a rebuttal speech the better. Though it is not a hard and fast rule, as discussion of the duties of respective rebuttal speakers in Chapter VI will disclose, it is fairly safe to say that not more than three or four points should be attempted in a rebuttal speech of five minutes. Better only one or two, under which others fall as sub-points. Consideration of many points without refuting any of them is evidence of poor debating. Bird shot has its place, but it is too scattered for rebuttal.

(4) In general, avoid "straw-men;" don't set up an opposing argument for the sake of knocking it down. If you are giving a talk, alone, in favor of Philippine independence, there may be questions in the minds of your hearers so prominent that you must definitely mention and answer them, such as danger of foreign aggression and capacity for self-government, but in a debate, leave it to your opponents to bring up their own arguments. Don't do it for them; they may not mention certain ones that you expect. In those rare cases when it seems wise to use a "straw-man," make it as general as possible: "Perhaps you have heard the argument," "Advocates of the plan commonly say," etc. Not "Our opponents will say . . ." for perhaps they won't; and even if they do, if they are clever, they make you look foolish, for having read their minds!

Conversely, don't hesitate tactfully and with a sense of humor to point out that your opponents are attacking straw men.

(5) On the other hand, when possible, protect the argument you present from expected attack by brief anticipatory refutation. This is quite different from setting up an argument only to knock it down. Here is an illustration from a university debater advocating the substitution of judge for jury in criminal trials: "We do not claim that paneling a jury normally takes days, but we do say that frequently there is needless expenditure of time and money." Thus he took steps to protect himself and to undermine the force of refutation that might be advanced.

This method also creates the impression of fairness, of avoiding assertive over-statement.

(6) Before attempting to answer an argument, be sure that you clearly understand it and see its significance in relation to the entire case of your opponents. If you are afraid you will muff the ball, leave it for someone else, for an argument half answered does the

opposing team more good than it does you: it reëmphasizes it favorably in the minds of the hearers.

(7) State clearly to the audience the argument you are attacking, point out its significance to the entire opposing case, and in closing show briefly how by refuting that point you have weakened the whole case.

In stating an opponent's argument, reduce it to the simplest possible terms: "In essence the affirmative is saying this . . ." or "We of the negative disagree for two reasons. . ."

It is sometimes possible to quote an opponent verbatim. Such a device is quite effective.

For the sake of clarity, it is often well to indicate what your method of attack will be: say "The argument is fallacious;" "The evidence will not bear analysis;" or "Where can proof be found for such a statement?"

(8) Take careful notes as the debate progresses. It is very easy to jot down just a catch word or two regarding a given argument, for at the time it seems entirely clear, as does the answer to be made. Other points pile up, however, until the first one is decidedly blurred. Get the exact opposing argument as given and below it indicate your answer. As your time to speak approaches, don't make a wild clutch and carry with you an unassorted collection of important, unimportant, and worthless cards. Nothing is more embarrassing than to be in the midst of a rebuttal speech and pick up a card that, so far as meaning anything to you, might just as well be written in Choctaw. Or to reach confidently for a card, discover it isn't there, begin to shuffle the pack, and eventually find it after the loss of precious seconds and several ounces of perspiration, or lamely pass on to another point that happens to be on top. Take time to assort, discard, and arrange. Take only the few cards that contain the really significant points that it seems likely you will have time to cover. When your time is up, you will probably be horrified

to discover that you still have a goodly number of cards whose wisdom cannot be shared.

(9) Summarize and clinch your points. It takes practice and criticism to acquire the ability to say just enough to answer an argument adequately and to know you have said just enough. Students usually err on the side of too little rather than too much. Familiar with the subject themselves, they are prone to take too much for granted on the part of the audience's reasoning ability. Don't do it. Show them exactly how your answer disposes of the argument and what the effect is on the issues of the discussion. On the other hand, it is a waste of time to keep on striking after the argument is killed. To repeat, the ability to know what is just enough to clinch a point comes from practice and friendly criticism.

(10) If the type of debating is such as provides for separate rebuttal speeches, all plans and main arguments should be presented in the constructive speeches. The rebuttal period is allowed for the attacking of arguments previously presented. It would be obviously unfair for the last negative speaker in rebuttal to come forth with an elaborate new objection to the course of action proposed by the affirmative or for the last affirmative rebuttal speaker to present a plan carefully concealed until then.

On the other hand, rebuttal should be something more than a mere rehashing of arguments and evidence presented earlier. Though important new arguments in support of a case are out of place, alert thinking and reasoning is essential and from it should emerge arguments that are new, new so far as main speeches are concerned and often new so far as their having been previously thought of are concerned. Quite as important is the use of new evidence in rebuttal. It is often desirable to call attention again to evidence presented earlier, but debaters should always reserve ammunition

for the rebuttal speeches. Not infrequently it is wise to hold back the most striking evidence, as is pointed out in the discussion of strategy.

One other point in this connection. Although you are now concerned with the two cases as they have been presented, since one of those cases is yours, you need to defend it. Hence, in connection with your attack on your opponents' arguments and evidence, you should defend your own. When a gang of boys is besieged in a hillside shack by another gang which is rolling stones down onto their roof, they not only try to get the stones off the roof and hurl them back; they also strengthen the supports that hold up the roof. Don't repeat merely what you have said earlier, though some repetition and restatement is acceptable, but present new, additional evidence and reasoning in support of contentions previously advanced.

(11) Remember also the corollary, that good main speeches are not purely constructive but have woven into them, in connection with constructive arguments, refutation. (Of course this statement does not apply to the first affirmative speech.) Refutation should never be restricted to the rebuttal speeches, for that arrangement means six set speeches delivered without regard to what opponents are saying. A debate should be a debate throughout and not an oratorical contest for two-thirds of the time. Don't be afraid to change what you had planned to say or to depart from it entirely so as to meet arguments as they arise.

(12) *Don't memorize rebuttal.* Advance rebuttal preparation, yes; and of the most careful and constructive sort. But when you present the fruit of your labors, let it be fresh fruit, not a cold-storage product.

(13) *Don't read rebuttal.* If you wish to insure an unfavorable effect upon your audience, read rebuttal cards word-for-word. Notes, within limits, are necessary. Statistics and quotations may be read if it is done

with conversational directness. But don't read rebuttal arguments; think on your feet and speak direct from the shoulder.

(14) *Avoid sharp distinction in style between main speeches and rebuttal speeches.* Too often main speeches are smothly delivered with fluency, polish, and astounding lack of adaptive flexibility, while the rebuttal speeches are hesitant and uncertain. Such is very often, not always, the penalty of the memorizing system. Both speeches should be flexible and fluent, qualities to be secured by practice in the extempore method.

(15) In summary: refute opposing arguments, repel attacks on your own, reëmphasize your constructive arguments, watch for your arguments that opponents ignore, and do it all with animation and direct communicativeness—these are the tasks of the rebuttal speaker.

III. Suggestions For The Affirmative[2]

(1) Stress your contentions and the issues as you have formulated them, and make them stand out clearly all through the debate. Make the negative meet these issues so far as you possibly can. It is you who choose the ground for battle. Refuse to be drawn away from it unless you have obviously made a mistake.

(2) Never allow yourselves to be put on the defensive, but repel attacks. It is the negative's business to attack and attack hard, and you must be ready for it. However, it is easy for an affirmative team unconsciously to give the impression that they are fighting with their backs against the wall. Don't do it. Throw off negative objections buoyantly, confident in the inherent soundness and superiority of your side of the discussion.

(3) Cheerfully accept the burden of proof but keep hammering home to your hearers that the negative has some definite tasks too. Although technically the nega-

[2] Comparison of the following affirmative and negative suggestions with team cards illustrated on pages 177-8 will show that these suggestions are placed there as a constant reminder to the debaters on the platform.

tive may pursue a purely destructive tack, such course has little appeal for a popular audience if it does not actually antagonize them. Make the most of this fact if circumstances permit. Again, remember that it is a case of gains and losses, of comparative values.

Meet the burden of proof specifically and in detail. Bring the need that you allege exists and your plan for meeting the need together specifically. Don't paint a black picture of the American farmer's plight and present the provisions of the McNarry Haugen Bill and think that that is enough to prove that such a law will cure the ills of agriculture. Show just how overproduction is the heart of the farm problem, what the McNary Haugen Bill provides to solve that problem, and just how the equalization fee will actually work to raise the price of a bushel of corn or wheat. Take nothing for granted.

In the event that the negative presents definite suggestions for reform, put back on it as much burden of proof as possible. (This does not mean childish reiteration of the words "burden of proof.") Don't let your opponents make suggestions in general terms or without being willing actively to sponsor them. Make them stand up to their suggestions and defend them and supply them with some definiteness. They must show that these suggestions will fill the bill.

Similarly with the counterproposition. Demand, and get the audience's backing as to the reasonableness of your demand, that the negative show that its plan meets the admitted need in detail better than does yours.

(4) If it is feasible, quite as effective a procedure as that of demanding that the negative shoulder burden of proof with its suggestions is to take over the suggestions and show that the heart of the problem is still untouched. Unless a counterproposition is really counter, you may even be able to accept it, thus leaving your opponents high and dry. No more effective way of disposing of opponents's proposals can be found.

(5) If the way in which the argument has gone allows it, contrast the affirmative standing for progress with the negative standing for the *status quo* as defined by a negro preacher: "De status quo is de mess we am in." Contrast constructive suggestions of the affirmative with impeding objections of the negative. Such tactics, of course, cannot be followed unless the negative speakers content themselves with a largely refutation case.

(6) Don't let the last negative rebuttal speaker overwhelm you with questions and demands. This is not an uncommon negative strategy, and the concluding affirmative speaker must not allow himself to be rattled by it. Simply remind the audience that most of these questions have been answered and these demands met during the progress of the debate; that it is obviously impossible to consider them all again in the space of five minutes when the two cases must be finally compared; but that you will consider such as seem important as time permits.

IV. Suggestions For The Negative

(1) Adapt to the affirmative case and issues but hold to your own contentions. If you feel that the affirmative debaters are quite wrong in their analysis of the issues, you should point out the grounds of your disagreement. Avoid disagreement over definition of terms, unless the need is imperative, imperative to a vital discussion of the question.

If the first affirmative speaker does not present adequate explanation for an understanding of the question, the first negative should capitalize on that omission and do it.

Don't be afraid to change your plans radically to meet an unexpected affirmative case, even to the extent of changing order of speakers or discarding a pre-arranged case entirely.

(2) In general avoid being purely destructive, but constantly and consistently attack. Keep doubts and questions uppermost in the minds of your hearers.

If the affirmative speakers are quite clearly on the defensive, do not hesitate to point that fact out to the audience.

(3) Make the affirmative side establish a definite need and show *in detail* how its plan meets it; this rather than repeatedly iterating the stereotyped phrase, "The affirmative has the burden of proof."

(4) *Anticipate in the last rebuttal.* Often when the last negative rebuttal speaker comes to speak there are still important points that the affirmative speakers have not considered. Either they are going to say nothing or they have waited until the last speech. The last negative speaker needs to watch for such points, including significant arguments advanced during the debate and definite questions asked by the negative for the affirmative to answer. He should then remind the audience of these matters, pointing out that the affirmative speakers have failed to consider them when there was plenty of time, suggesting that any answer made in the concluding speech should be discounted inasmuch as the negative will have no chance to analyze it.

If it can be done with tact, a general exhortation to remember this or that point, regardless of what may be said in the last affirmative speech, may be effective. Care must be taken to avoid giving the impression that you are misused because you can't speak last. Don't sob about the rules of the game.

V. Delivery: Some Do's and Dont's

There is so much in common in the delivery of debate speeches and other types, and there are so many standard speech texts that discuss at length the matter of delivery, that merely outline treatment will be essayed here. At the same time, it will be noted that attention is given to more than the mere manner of standing and uttering audible sounds. Delivery, in its broader aspects, is concerned with the speaker himself and the effect that he

consciously and unconsciously produces on his hearers. People are moved to believe or to act, not by facts and figures and cold logic, at least not by them alone, but by appeals, direct and indirect, to their feelings—their sense of right and wrong, their love of fair play, their desire for social recognition, their longing for personal gain and advancement. The effective debater must be able to plead as well as explain and argue. The persuasive appeal is often needed in overt form. It should always be present indirectly as the result of certain attitudes and characteristics on the part of the speaker.

(1) *Use the conversational method.* That means, feel that you have something worth while saying and give it to your hearers directly, without affectation or any other impediment to free man-to-man communication. Do not hesitate to be animated and enthusiastic for your subject.

This essential element of communicativeness can be had in a memorized speech provided you do not perform parrot-like, but think vitally while you are speaking. It is much more likely to be present, however, when you speak extemporaneously out of a thorough knowledge of the subject. Such extempore delivery, with practice, can be nearly, if not quite, as fluent as that which results from memorizing. The conversational method insures adaptation to opponents' arguments and to the experience of the audience, and it avoids noticeable distinction in style between constructive and rebuttal speeches.

(2) *Avoid an over-controversial attitude and manner.* Don't proceed on the assumption that you must argue with the audience. They are usually friendly; knowing little about the subject, they want to be enlightened. As regards subject and opponents, remember the two terms, "comparative values" and "cooperative controversy."

A simple little device for securing cooperative at-

tention and attitude on the part of your hearers is to vary assertive statements of facts and assertive falling inflections of the voice by frequently putting matters up to them: "Don't you think so?" "Doesn't it seem reasonable that. . .?" "Do you see how it is?" "It is quite simple after all, is it not?" Many a debater will vastly increase his persuasive powers by laying aside some of his assertiveness and cultivating the use of cooperative questioning.

(3) *However, don't hesitate to show real earnestness and conviction in your speaking.*[8] The good salesman is the man who believes in his goods and is not afraid to show it. "Faint heart never won fair lady"—or a debate audience.

(4) *Be sincere.* Nothing is more damning in the eyes of an audience than an appearance of insincerity.

(5) *Be simple.* Be earnest, be thorough, but don't try to be profound. Many a high school debate, even on an impossibly heavy subject, might have "gone over" if only the debaters had come down to earth. Don't talk over the heads of your audience.—and perhaps your own.

(6) *Be fair.* The really effective advocate or opponent of a measure is the man or woman who appreciates at their full value the persons and arguments on the other side. Don't misrepresent opponents. Play the game squarely and above-board.

"He does not really believe his opinion who dares not give free scope to his opponent." *Wendell Phillips.*

(7) *Combine modesty and self-confidence in your bearing and general attitude.* Cockiness antagonizes an audience, and apologetic uncertainty produces an equally bad effect. Lincoln is credited with the statement that no man ever made a speech upon which his hearers, in the aggregate, could not improve. On the other hand, for the time being you are an authority on the subject

[8] Cf. discussion of debating against one's convictions, Ch. I.

under discussion and know more about it than those to whom you are talking.

(8) *Be courteous—to audience, chairman, and opponents.*

(9) *Be tactful.* How many times have you heard it said of someone, "He means well, but . . ." ? Many a man or woman on fire with zeal for a good cause has accomplished little because of tactlessness. "Talent knows *what* to do; tact knows *how* to do it."[4]

(10) *Don't be afraid to be original.* This does not mean to attract attention by doing bizarre and outlandish things. It simply means, let your own individuality show forth in your speaking. A debate team should not be three duplicates of the coach. Don't be a parrot-like imitator of anybody, no matter how great a speaker he or she may be. Imitation may be highly valuable, however, if it is not slavish.

(11) *Don't be afraid to use humor.* American debating would be quite as educational and decidedly more fun for everyone concerned if it were not so ponderously serious. Dragging in a "funny story" is not necessarily humor, however. The humor that enlivens public speaking comes from wit even more than from apt illustrative stories—a turn of phrase, a bit of satire that causes a chuckle rather than a guffaw.

(12) *Don't be afraid to repeat.* An obvious but effective way to drive points home is by repetition, possibly in identical words if the phrasing is particularly fortunate, or in different phraseology.

(13) *Exercise self-control.* Be poised; don't get flustered under pressure. Be master of the situation.

More particularly, don't lose your temper, even under grave provocation. Don't resort to the small boy's device of calling names. Don't impugn the motives of

[4] Quoted by Brigance in *The Spoken Word*, p. 143. F. S. Crofts and Company, New York, 1927.

your opponents; it is easy to misunderstand and misinterpret.

Consider Lincoln again. In his first debate with Douglas, at Ottawa, in arguing the existence of a conspiracy among certain leading Democrats, he said: "If in arraying that evidence, I had stated anything which was false or erroneous, it needed but that Judge Douglas should point it out, and I would have taken it back with all the kindness in the world. I do not deal in that way. If I have brought forward anything not a fact, if he will point it out it will not even ruffle me to take it back. But if he will not point out anything erroneous in the evidence, is it not rather for him to show, by a comparison of the evidence, that I have reasoned falsely, than to call the 'kind, amiable, intelligent gentleman' a liar? If I have reasoned to a false conclusion, it is the vocation of an able debater to show by argument that I have wandered to an erroneous conclusion."[5]

(14) *Be careful how you use ridicule and sarcasm.* Some writers say that these should never be employed. It is undoubtedly true that they are two-edged and can safely be used only with skilled finesse, at rare intervals. The difference between sarcasm that snarls and bites and the sarcasm that merely shows its teeth in a good-natured grin is a matter of the spirit that lies behind. This spirit shows itself, quite largely, in facial expression and inflection of the voice. Sarcasm and ridicule that are good-humored may also be good humor.

If you are the object of ill-tempered sarcasm at the hands of an opponent, don't retaliate. He is killing himself in the good graces of the audience; don't compete for his unpopularity. An excellent example of tact in handling an opponent's sarcasm is furnished by the opening words of the second negative speaker of a team representing an American college[6] in a debate with an

[5] Alonzo T. Jones, ed. *Political Speeches and Debates of Abraham Lincoln and Stephen A. Douglas*, p. 186.

[6] Mr. Arthur Secord of Western State Teachers College.

Australian team in 1926: "Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: It is our understanding that Dr. Godsall, whose remarks we have just enjoyed, is a surgeon, and in the light of this fact we will pardon him for his cutting remarks."

As is pointed out in other connections, possible objects of good-natured ridicule are the over-use of statistics and authorities, straw men, and the negative argument that a policy should not be adopted because it "lacks public support."

(15) *Use the best diction of which you are capable.* Because debating is a contest in thinking as well as speaking does not excuse slovenly and careless grammar, choice of words, and sentence construction. Nevertheless, hearers, including judges, should not be too censorious of an occasional grammatical slip; it may be evidence of extemporaneous delivery.

(16) *Do not talk too fast.* Remember that speech is a two-sided relationship and that you have an audience who must not only hear the sound of your voice but must have time to drink in the significance of what you are saying—material with which they are not so familiar as you are.

And don't talk all the time. Use pauses, to allow time for meaning to soak in and for effect. The importance of pauses can scarcely be over-emphasized, and still most debaters make far too little use of them, at least of the sort that are meaningful. Be master of the pause, even of the uncertain ones when you aren't sure what you are going to say next. The story is told of a certain Congressman, who, when complimented by a colleague on the power of a recent speech in which a particular pause was pronounced as "positively terrible" in its effect, remarked: "It certainly was; I didn't know what I was going to say next."

(17) *Speak distinctly and in a pleasant tone.* Voices vary in their pleasantness, but there are few that could

not be improved. By common-sense breathing and relaxation, do all you can to remove tightness and unpleasantly high pitch.

Whatever your vocal quality, speak distinctly. About the most elemental test of good speaking is this: Is it clearly audible? Use enough force to make yourself heard and enough care in forming and enunciating sounds to be understood.

(18) *Use vocal variety.* Like pauses, variety is tremendously important. Nothing kills interest so quickly and thoroughly as does monotony. As meaning and mood in a debate speech change, so should the voice change in force, now loud, now soft; in quality, now stating facts, now ringing in challenge; in pitch, now high, now low; in rate, now fast, now slow.

(19) *Stand easily erect and don't be afraid to move about.* Physical action should assist the voice in carrying meaning. From the way one stands to the way his face responds to thought and feeling, "every little movement has a meaning all its own" to the audience. Stand easily erect. Don't slouch; don't strut. Show forth in physical poise your mental poise arising from modesty and assurance.

Movement on the platform furnishes what is known as visible punctuation. What more natural than that the speaker should step forward when he says, "I submit to you, ladies and gentlemen;" that he should take a step or two across the stage on "But let us go a little further;" that he should walk around the speaker's stand to indicate one of his main transitions? Use plenty of physical movement about the platform, movement that is purposeful rather than random, movement at significant intervals rather than distracting constant pacing about. In general, the greater the change in thought, the wider the transition, the more steps you should take.

How should one walk? Don't rush, don't stroll. Walk simply and unaffectedly as though you have some-

where to go and wish to get there in a business-like way. But don't scuff your feet! Such a habit is unbelievably distracting.

Should one talk and walk at the same time? This is a question for movement accompanying important transitions. You will naturally start to walk during the pause following conclusion of the point just presented. Inasmuch as the general principle for all bodily action, that it should not call attention to itself, applies here, you will probably not do all the walking in silence. You will start to utter the transitional phrase, whatever it may be: "That is not all, however; we have yet to consider. . ." By the time you have reached your new position you will be ready to go on with the new argument.

(20) *Be master of the speaker's stand,* if there is one. It is not a lounge, as some English debaters have seemed to think, but it may be leaned on effectively now and then. On the other hand, don't get anchored behind it, afraid to venture forth and stand free. It is very useful to walk around when making important transitions, but don't beat out a race track pacing back and forth around it. Too much action can be quite as monotonous as not enough.

Stand well downstage. Get as physically near your audience as you can, without making them speculate as to whether you will fall off the platform. You will not only make them hear better but will establish a more direct contact. It is not an unknown practice for the home team to place the speaker's stand well back, hoping that the visitors, unaccustomed to the peculiar acoustics of the auditorium, will speak from it and consequently will not be heard well, while the members of the home team speak from well down front. If you are ever faced by such a situation, or if for any other reason the stand seems too far back, either move it downstage or else speak there without it.

Rather than carry an armful of books, magazines,

and pamphlets from your table to the speaker's stand, you should reduce your baggage to a minimum. If you find you need an evidence card or other reference material during the progress of your remarks, walk naturally to your table and get it. Similarly, if you find your mouth is getting too dry to function, excuse yourself or pause and step to the water pitcher. These minor matters are sometimes the best test of your poise.

(21) *Use simple, communicative gestures.* Don't take as your speaking model the old-fashioned wooden Indian that used to stand in front of cigar stores. When you converse with your friends, you use hands, arms, shoulders, facial muscles. Why not carry this same spontaneous activity, somewhat modified of course by the demands of a more formal occasion, into your work on the platform? Gestures should grow naturally out of thought and feeling, thus being just as real a part of the speaking as voice or language. They should not call attention to themselves. However, this last principle should prevent no one from practising with gestures by himself even though they are a bit stiff and awkward. If gesturing comes hard for you, do all you can to limber up, and remember that no one ever learned to swim without getting into the water.

Cultivate a normal rest position when you are not gesturing. Try to feel comfortable or at ease with your hands hanging naturally at your sides. There is no reason why for short periods you should not do other things with your hands—putting one in your pocket, or clasping them behind your back, but don't become wedded to such positions.

Don't overdo gesturing. For every one who needs this injunction there are ten who should work for more gestures. However, it should be borne in mind that constant gesturing defeats its own purpose, distracting the audience's attention or becoming so monotonous as no longer to give emphasis. A moving electric sign at-

tracts our attention for a time, but we finally get so accustomed to it that it goes unnoticed.

Avoid pounding the table, stamping your feet, or otherwise displaying your lack of appropriate reserve. Be courteous to your audience as well as your opponents.

Some inexperienced speakers who have difficulty in gesturing find it helpful to recite or read aloud, *as to an audience,* selections from other debate speeches, using what seem to be appropriate, natural gestures for various expressions. Warren Choate Shaw in his *History of American Oratory,*[7] p. 690-1, has culled some useful expressions from great speeches for practical purposes.

(22) *Use notes sparingly.*[8] Notes for rebuttal, whether in separate speeches or in running rebuttal, are necessary for most people. Should one use notes for his prepared speech, however? Yes, if he is their master and can use them unobtrusively; no, if he is their slave.

(23) *When you read, do it fluently and communicatively.* A speech gives the impression of being more extemporaneous if quotations and detailed statistics are read rather than recited from memory. But keep in contact with your audience, and don't stumble. That means—practice carefully what you are going to read. You must know the material so well that you need not keep your eyes glued to the page or the card.

In rebuttal it is often most effective to read from an original source rather than from a card, provided, of course, that you have the necessary reference material with you at the table.

(24) *Finally, use variety.* No one element or style or method or quality is so good but that it can become monotonous. Variety in structure and variety in manner are both needed. All sentences should not be declarative; short sentences as well as long should be

[7] Published by The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis. 1928.
[8] Cf. *Briefs and Outlines,* Ch. IV.

used; periodic sentences as well as loose. Similarly with voice, physical posture and movement, attitude,—these must change widely and often during the course of a speech if it is to get hold of the hearers.

Particularly important is variety among the larger divisions of the speech, variety which, through content, wording, and especially manner, produces a series of climaxes climbing steadily higher to the final conclusion. Even though such an ideal arrangement of *mounting* peaks is not possible, there must be some peaks, some elevations that keep the speech from running monotonously along on a dead level.

Whether the sub-climax is brought out by increased vocal energy or by vocal restraint or by appropriate gestures or by movement on the platform or by a combination of these means or by other means, whatever the method, when the peak has been reached, descent should follow in terms of decreased emphasis and tension. A plateau may be as monotonous as a valley. The effective speech has peaks of major emphasis that stand out for the beholder.

(25) *A Miscellaneous Don't or Two.*

Don't run out of things to say. It is a practically sure sign of weakness to have to stop before your time is up. Knowledge of the question, thinking, ability to adapt—something is definitely wrong.

Don't say "my constructive speech." This expression is too rigid and stereotyped, and it sets first speeches off too sharply as something quite different from second speeches. Say, rather, "earlier," "previous remarks," or "other speech," and don't always use the same expression.

Don't say "we have proved" or "our opponents have proved." In the first case, such expressions as these are preferable: "We have shown," or "explained," or "pointed out." Proof is an indefinite something in the minds of your hearers, and you don't convince them by

assertion any more than the Chicago *Tribune* becomes the "world's greatest newspaper" by admitting it. On the other hand, be careful how you say, "We have tried to show." It is easy to give an impression of uncertainty and apology.

In the second case, when you refer to opponents, it is both logically and psychologically foolish to refer to their having proved a point unless you are really admitting the point. It is better to say "asserted," "maintained," or "argued."

Don't demand that opponents "must prove to us." It is in the minds of the audience rather than of an opposing team that proof must be established. As a matter of fact, even laying aside the contest element, is there much hope of convincing one's opponents? Since such a demand is foolish, avoid it yourself and ridicule its use by opponents.

VII. Strategy[1]

Strategy may be defined as using one's resources in such a way as to gain an unexpected advantage over opponents.

Its use is condemned by some as being unethical and as contributing to an artificial style of debate that antagonizes the general hearer. It must be admitted that there is some justification for this criticism. Is it not true, however, that the hearers enjoy the contest element as well as the discussion of the question, and that cleverness which does not take unfair advantages contributes to their enjoyment? Some fans like to see two prize-fighters stand up and maul each other into insensibility; real sportsmen prefer an exhibition of clever, heady boxing.

The only sort of strategy whose use is recommended here is that which does not take unfair advantage, either

[1] See ... [illegible] ...

of the audience in following the discussion or of opponents. Many readers may not consider some of the methods mentioned as strategy at all, but rather as mere common-sense use of one's material and opportunities. Those who shy at the term "strategy" may substitute "debate technique" if that is more acceptable. There can be no exhaustive discussion, for the possibilities are numberless, depending on question, audience, opponents, and debate developments. The methods and types discussed here are general.

One requirement is essential if one is to use almost any sort of strategy. That is the ability to extemporize and adapt quickly and effectively.

A. *Some Strategic Devices*

(1) *Changing the order of speakers.* As pointed out elsewhere, it is frequently desirable to have speakers appear in different order in rebuttal from that which they followed in main speeches. For example, the first affirmative speaker may be the most experienced member of the team and should speak last in rebuttal.

This may apply to a change from the downward speaking order for constructive speeches, made desirable by the way in which the opposing case is developing. Suppose each negative speaker has a main contention. The second affirmative speaker presents arguments with which the contention of the third negative speaker directly clashes. Other things being equal, he who is scheduled to speak last for the negative should speak second. If a team has a sliding schedule of this sort, the chairman should be informed in advance so that he will await word before announcing the second speaker.

(2) *Use of questions.* Questions may be asked for a variety of reasons—to disconcert opponents, to throw them off the track, to cause loss of time in answering, to secure answers disadvantageous to the opposition, to

force into a dilemma, to help clarify the discussion. It is obvious that, from the viewpoint of ethical justification, there is great difference in these types, so obvious, in fact, that detailed comment seems uncalled for. Let this suffice. When you ask questions, eliminate those that are designed to becloud and delay. When questions are directed to you, look before you leap. You need not regard your opponents as tricksters, as guilty until proved innocent, but at the same time, do not be unduly trustful. Consider the question carefully before you answer.

One hard and fast rule can be laid down. Don't ignore questions your opponents ask. If they are trivial or irrelevant or ulterior in motive, tactfully point that out. If they are bona fide, meet them straightforwardly. Beware of "yes" or "no" answers. You can be sure that your opponents intend to capitalize on your answers if you give them the chance. Categorical "yes" and "no" answers are the most vulnerable.

Don't ask too many questions and don't ask them too fast. Both audience and opponents must have time to take them in. To insure accuracy it is not uncommon to have questions typewritten on a card in advance, and as soon as they are read aloud the card is handed over to the opposing team.

Here is an illustration of how questions may be legitimately introduced, taken from the middle of a first negative speech on the proposition, "Resolved, that this house endorses Mussolini's governmental principles."

Compared in these two essential points of principle, we find, then, that the principles of Mussolini as compared with those of democracy, hold no hope for the world. They are a flat denial of those principles that man has found in his struggle through the centuries to guarantee him the most selt respect.

So right here we should like to ask the gentlemen two questions: First, do you advocate the principles of government of Mussolini or those of democracy for the United States? Second, do you advocate the governmental principles of Mussolini or

those of democracy for Italy under normal conditions? We are not asking these questions as a blind, ladies and gentlemen, but we believe that you are entitled to a statement of the stand of the affirmative regarding them. We wish that the next speaker from the opposition would give us his answer to them."[10]

Just as the team questioned must not ignore questions, so the questioning team must follow up its questions. If they are answered, comment and rebuttal is needed; if they are ignored, that fact must be pointed out to the audience, often more than once with profit. If a question or a series of questions is asked in the very concluding sentences of a speaker, the opposing speaker who immediately follows him should not be penalized if he does not take up the question and answer it fully. It may be very much wiser for him to say that inasmuch as his opponents have taken the trouble to formulate a question, doubtless they desire a careful answer. This he cannot give because of insufficient time for consideration, but a later colleague will consider it fully. Even though ample time for answering is given, it may be wise to allow one opposing speech to ignore a question. If two speeches pass it up, however, the audience should be reminded.

It is decidedly unethical for the affirmative to delay answering a question until their last rebuttal, when the negative have no come-back. The concluding negative rebuttal speaker should warn the audience in advance against such unfair tactics, though considerable tact is needed to avoid the appearance of impugning opponents' motives.[11]

(3) *Challenges.* Avoid challenges. They smack of mock heroics and are decidedly dangerous. "We challenge our opponents to produce one example" collapses like a pricked balloon with the production of just *one* example.

[10] *University Debaters' Annual*: 1926-1927. p. 332. Reprinted by permission of The H. W. Wilson Company.

[11] Cf. *Suggestions for the Negative* earlier in this chapter.

If confronted by a challenge, don't ignore it unless obviously absurd, but kill it with kindness.

(4) *Protests.* The occasion must be extreme indeed to warrant a protest to the chair in an ordinary debate. Suppose you are on the negative and the last affirmative produces a damaging conclusion to an important quotation which you have read, making it appear that you have deceived the audience. You can prove that that alleged conclusion is faked. Under such circumstances, a protest might be justified in theory. Actually, even then there would be a doubt from the standpoint of actual effect on the audience. The case must be very clear and the protest must be skilfully handled to prevent an impression of poor sportsmanship.

On the other hand, if your procedure is ever the cause of protest, don't get flustered or angry. Hold your poise and lend your best efforts to straightening out the misunderstanding.

(5) *Charts.* There is considerable difference of opinion as to the value and admissibility of charts. Their use seems to be declining. Debaters should be able to put their ideas into words clear enough to carry the desired meaning without the use of charts. Employ them only when they seem the sole way of making particular figures or arguments graphic. They should be charts for diagrams and not bulletin boards for printed arguments. Whenever charts are used, it should be in a manner fair and aboveboard, and they should always be available to opponents for analysis and refutation.

The following main types of strategy will be taken up in outline form. These points will be considered under each: which team, affirmative or negative, can use it; its characteristics; how to meet it. In some cases examples will be given. "You" means both the team and the individual member.

When to use this or that or a combination or none must be decided in the light of the particular situation.

The reader, on analyzing, will discover that the various types may be classified under two headings: those suited to the strong, aggressive case and those useful in defense of the weak case.[12]

B. *Strategy of Putting One's Best Foot Forward*

(1) Used by either side.

(2) Emphasize your strong arguments, soft-pedal your weak ones. If your weaker arguments are attacked, admit them or refute with a quick telling blow and revert to your strong points and the case as a whole. Refuse to be drawn from your impregnable main points.

(3) To meet. Attack strongly, emphasizing points being soft-pedaled, especially if they seem really important.

C. *Strategy of Attacking at the Weakest Point*

(1) Though this is particularly a negative device, it may be used by the affirmative also.

(2) Using all your knowledge of both sides of the question, pick out the important points in your opponents' argument that seem weakest and then constantly hammer. Affirmative teams are not infrequently deficient in establishing a definite, serious need for a change in existing conditions and in showing specifically how their plan actually meets the need. When your opponents exhibit this weakness, there is a place to attack.

(3) To meet. Adapt the strategy of Putting One's Best Foot Forward. If attacked points cannot be admitted, bolster them with the most effective refutation you can command.

[12] Cf. *Strategy in Debate*, by Warren Choate Shaw. *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education.* 11:368-72. November, 1925.

D. *Strategy of Staying Off Thin Ice*

(1) Used by either side.

(2) Avoid attacking an opposing argument if you are weak there. You must not give your hearers the impression, however, that you are afraid of the point. If your opponents make much of it, then face it honestly, raising doubts or even admitting. Remember that a weak, half-hearted answer reëmphasizes the argument to the advantage of your opponents.

As discussed elsewhere, it is quite unfair for an affirmative team to withhold consideration of an important point on which it is weak until the last rebuttal speech.

(3) To meet. Point out to the audience the strange silence of your opponents. Make them face the music if you can, but beware of being the victim of

E. *Strategy of Leading Opponents On*

(1) Used by either side.

(2) In constructive argument, withhold some important argument or evidence so as to call forth from your opponents a demand that you produce it. Then in a late rebuttal speech (but not the last affirmative) you produce the missing material overwhelmingly and crushingly.

When you use this strategy in refutation, in either main or rebuttal speeches, deliberately refrain from attacking a point until your opponents have called the attention of the audience, perhaps more than once, to your silence. Then give it both barrels.

An example may be found in arguing the McNary-Haugen Farm Relief Bill. An affirmative team establishes a need for remedial legislation and outlines the provisions of the proposed law. It deliberately fails, however, to show specifically how the law would operate

to raise the price of farm products. After being taken to task by the negative for this omission, the team proceeds to spend an entire rebuttal speech in presenting proof.

The procedure involved here is definitely strategy and may be objected to by some as being unfair. It can be abused, of course, as can many debate practices, but if the general spirit behind the debating is one of fair play, this strategy may make the discussion more lively and interesting for audience as well as participants.

(3) To meet. Use caution in swallowing your opponents' bait. If there is an obvious lack of proof on the part of an otherwise well-prepared team, look out. The more you emphasize the lack, the more telling their supplying it when the time comes. In the second place, be ready to consider the argument or evidence vigorously and head-on, just as soon as it is presented. And, finally, if you are the last negative rebuttal speaker, and the affirmative speakers have not yet presented significant proof that your team has demanded, point out that such presentation is out of place in their last speech when your team has no chance to analyze the material.

F. *Strategy of Admitting*

(1) Used by either side.

(2) This may not be strategy, as such, at all. It may simply be a bona fide effort to exclude certain matters so as to get at the real heart of the question.

An admission preceding an opponent's expected argument or attack tends to confound the opposition and derange their planned procedure. An admission following an argument or attack on which opponents have spent considerable time has the effect of virtually wasting that much of their total time allowance. In either case, time is saved for the team making the admission.

Let us again take an example from debates on the McNary-Haugen Farm Relief Bill of 1927. Suppose the first affirmative has spent most of his time portraying the urgent need of legislative help to American agriculture. The first negative speaker says, "You have heard the preceding speaker paint a vivid picture of agricultural distress in this country. So far as we are concerned he might well have saved his time. We are in complete agreement with him as to the need." And then he goes on to indicate that the point of disagreement is not the existence of a need but how the need should be met.

If you admit an important point, it means that you must concentrate on the essential points remaining. On these contentions you must take a fixed stand and drive them home. It is the strategy of the military commander who withdraws from positions he is afraid he cannot successfully defend, to central, well fortified positions.

There is one type of admitting that you should usually avoid, even as a strategic measure, and that is progressive admitting, falling back from first one position and then another as the fight gets too hot. This strategy is sometimes recommended for the affirmative, but unless it is handled with consummate skill, the almost inevitable effect on the audience is an impression of apology and retreat. Canvass the situation thoroughly in advance and know pretty well what you can do and what you had better surrender. Then, always proceeding, of course, on the principle that one must adapt to situations as they develop, stick to your guns.

(3) To meet. Depending on whether an admission seems dictated by tactical necessity or by a genuine attempt to discuss only essentials, point out that your opponents are on the defensive or meet them in the effort to get at the real issues.

G. *The Strategy of "Assuming for the Sake of Argument"*

(1) Used by either side; especially effective for final constructive speakers.

(2) When you use this device, instead of admitting a point once and for all, and so removing it from the discussion, admit or assume only temporarily, for the purpose of increasing the force of an argument which you wish to emphasize.

Consider the effectiveness of this device in the hands of a third constructive negative speaker on the proposition, "Resolved, that this house endorses the governmental principles of Mussolini." After two or three minutes of extempore refutation he continues it thus:

> Mr. Becker showed that these principles are a denial of the ideals of all free people. Mr. Endsley further proved that they have made Italy an international menace, jeopardizing world peace.
>
> We believe, ladies and gentlemen, that we would be justified in asking you to condemn Mussolini's principles merely on these two grounds. The affirmative, however, have belittled their importance, stressing Italy's economic recovery. Mr. Lawton said that "principles can be judged only by their results."
>
> To satisfy the gentlemen, and to cover every possible phase of the subject, let us now shift our attention to Italy, where our opponents are so anxious to keep the discussion, and see the results Mussolini has brought. Let us assume for the moment, purely for the sake of argument, that the two indictments we have brought against Mussolini's principles do not hold, that Fascism is not a throw-back to absolutism, and that it is not an international menace. Leaving these two considerations out of the discussion, and meeting our opponents on their own chosen ground, we contend that you cannot afford to endorse Mussolini's principles even for Italy."[13]

Note that the contentions that Mussolini's ideals are a denial of the ideals of free people and that they con-

[13] *University Debaters' Annual*: 1926-1927. p. 345-6. Reprinted by permission of The H. W. Wilson Company.

stitute an international menace were by no means admitted; they were merely laid aside temporarily. Throughout the rebuttal they figured prominently.

This device of "assuming for the sake of argument," though particularly effective toward the close of a debate, may be used elsewhere in connection with subpoints. Wherever used, however, it is imperative, to prevent confusion on the part of your hearers, to make plain that your admission is "only for the sake of argument."

(3) To meet. Point out that opponents have finally decided to discuss aspects of the question you have been stressing, and proceed with the discussion.

H. *Strategy of Stealing Opponents' Thunder*

(1) Used by either side.

(2) If you are on the affirmative, study carefully the objections that the negative will probably bring against your plan. Then organize your constructive case so that the contentions represent the reverse of these objections.

Another way in which this strategy may be employed is in adaptation to the partition of an opposing team when their first speaker states all their contentions in advance. Under such circumstances you may find it desirable so to reword your own contentions and reorganize your case as to steal opponents' thunder by constructive refutation or even by admission. Real agility is necessary to do this, but agility is a characteristic worth developing.

In a debate on the proposition, "Resolved, that the United States should recognize the present government of Russia," an affirmative team employed this strategy by developing the following contentions, of which the last two countered negative charges.

1. The United States labors under definite disadvantages because of our policy of non-recognition.

2. These disadvantages can be removed and positive benefits can be secured only by recognition.

3. Our refusal to negotiate with Russia constitutes an unjustifiable interference in the internal affairs of Russia.

4. For us to stand aloof not only hinders the development of the world in a commercial way, but denies the unity of mankind, the greatest reality of the twentieth century.

(3) To meet. Maintain complete poise, compliment your opponents on their acute and accurate analysis of the question, and then scrap it out, head on.

I. *Strategy of Not Showing One's Hand*

(1) Used by either side.

(2) As a team, don't reveal at the outset what your complete plan of procedure will be. Don't state all your contentions in advance in the first speech. If you do, you give your opponents an opportunity to get ready for you.

Care must be taken, however, that each individual speech accomplishes something definite from the standpoint of what the hearers get. This you can do by stating your contention for the *particular* speech in advance, or by summarizing at the close, or by using both devices. Remember that the audience must know what you are driving at, individually and as a team. When you use the strategy of not showing your hand, don't be so zealous in concealing it from your opponents that the audience is left in the dark too.

The negative, when presenting suggestions or a counter-proposition, naturally uses this strategy, though, as pointed out in the discussion of the Strategy of the Unexpected Case, it may be more effective strategy to present suggestions early.

(3) To meet. Be alert and ready to act at once when your opponents' complete hand is finally shown.

J. *Strategy of Raising Objections*

(1) Used by the negative.

(2) Offer objections, ask questions, raise doubts, lay down tasks for the affirmative in the first speech and keep them uppermost throughout the debate, re-emphasizing them in the last rebuttal. If you use this strategy, your object is to raise so many doubts in the minds of the audience that the affirmative cannot successfully dispel them. To this end, throw out questions and objections indiscriminately, big and little, important and unimportant.

Care, however, is necessary. Remember the general emphasis of this book on debate as a consideration of relative values. Though you may raise doubts in your hearers' minds, they will usually demand that you do something more basic than merely offer objections. Hence, consider carefully before building an entire case along these lines.

Use discretion also in the tasks you lay down for the affirmative and in the language you use to express them. Otherwise your opponents may make you look foolish.

Again, be careful about your last rebuttal. It should reëmphasize objections and questions, but it is easy to exaggerate what your team has done and what the opponents have failed to do.

This strategy, though seldom sufficient to constitute an entire case, should find a place in most, if not all, negative cases. The following opening paragraphs from a first negative speech on the question of United States recognition of Soviet Russia illustrate the use of objections in a case otherwise employing this strategy only incidentally.

It may seem to some, that we of the negative in opposing the recognition of the Soviet Government, regard the Russian people with contempt. Not so. We fully appreciate the diffi-

culties of the Russian people and sympathize with them. We have already recognized the *people* of Russia. This is evidenced by the fact that during the recent famine in Russia, millions of dollars worth of foods and supplies were sent there. Many organizations in this country, including the American Red Cross, have taken special interest in Russian welfare work and have done much to help those people. We have no quarrel with the people of Russia. However, this question is not one that can be determined upon sympathy and we *do* oppose the recognition of the Soviet Government for very definite reasons.

Do not misunderstand us and think that we oppose recognition for now and everlasting. We don't. We oppose it for the present time and until such time as the Soviet Government shall show an inclination to fulfill its part of the mutual obligations involved in recognition. If the gentlemen of the affirmative are going to show that it should be recognized now, they must clear up several matters that stand squarely in the way. For instance, what do they propose to do about the eight hundred million dollars that is due the United States and its citizens for loans that have been repudiated and property that has been confiscated? Do they know that unconditional recognition not only places our stamp of approval on that government, but validates all of its illegal acts against us? The gentlemen must show that this government represents the will of the Russian people, not merely some clique that at present dominates affairs. They must convince you, ladies and gentlemen, that this government is not controlled by the Communist Internationale of Moscow. And are they going to ignore the fact that these Communists have vowed (and are using every means in their power) to stir up revolutions in other parts of the world? They must show that recognition would bring benefits that would compensate for all the risks involved. Then they certainly must show some good reasons for wishing to recognize the Soviet Government when that regime has proved so faithless. When the gentlemen of the affirmative have shown how these questions can be answered, then they can go ahead and consider recognition." [14]

(3) To meet. Refuse to get excited; point out that so many questions are obviously for effect; assure the audience that most of them will be answered in the course

[14] Speech by Mr. Edward Jennings of Western State Teachers College.

of the discussion; pick out the important and strategic ones to answer; and appeal to the audience's good sense and love of fair play.

K. *Strategy of Playing Opponents Off Their Feet*

(1) When this strategy is used by the *negative* it is designed to put and keep the affirmative on the defensive. Attack vigorously, all along the line, the entire affirmative position and plan. Don't give your opponents a chance to get their breath.

For this destructive method to be effective, speaking must be largely, if not entirely, extempore. Do not have an iron-clad speaking order; be free to shift as the situation demands. It may be wise to leave the last constructive speech entirely free for refutation.

(2) In the hands of the *affirmative,* the strategy of playing opponents off their feet demands a spirited and continuous attack on existing conditions, an enthusiastic presentation of the new order, and an attack with righteous indignation on arguments that are used to block progress. Often it is desirable to present much of the constructive case in the first speech, thus giving the other speakers time for much running rebuttal and supporting evidence.

(3) To meet. Keep cool and handle the *significant* points effectively. Don't be put on the defensive. The negative may be able to ridicule the crusading zeal of their opponents; the affirmative to hold up to censure the stand-pat obstructionism of the negative.

L. *Strategies of Special Refutation Devices*

For a discussion of the dilemma, turning the tables, and *reductio ad absurdum,* any standard text on argumentation may be consulted.

M. *Strategy of the Unexpected Case*

As was pointed out of strategy in general, so with the unexpected case; there are countless and unpredict-

able possibilities. Otherwise it could not very well be unexpected. There is nothing reprehensible about organizing a case along unexpected lines, *provided* that it does not interfere with audience understanding and enjoyment. If your team meets an unexpected case, you have no cause for complaint so long as the case is within the limits of reason, and on that the audience is really the final judge.

To meet an unexpected case you need a cool head, quick wits, practice, team-work, and the ability to adapt, even to the extent of discarding all pre-arranged plans.

Despite some overlapping with strategies just discussed and despite the paradoxical nature of the task involved, a few sources of unexpectedness in case development are suggested here. It is obvious, is it not, that this strategy is peculiarly adapted to the use of the affirmative?

(1) *Admission.* By the affirmative of the usual chief negative objections. But then show that your case still stands.

By the negative of the usual chief affirmative arguments advanced in support of a change. But insist that there is still insufficient ground for action.

Both of these devices illustrate "admission *preceding* an opponent's expected argument or attack" as mentioned in the discussion of the Strategy of Admitting.

(2) *Waiting for admission.* Here you wait to see if the negative admits an important affirmative point, the need of a change, for example. Assume the need at the outset, and establish only if it is challenged by your opponents. If the negative admits the need, you save the time that would be lost if a speech were used in establishing it.

(3) *Accepting more burden of proof than necessary.* As an example of this sort of case, let us take the proposition, "Resolved, that the Federal government should develop the principal sources of hydro-electric power in the United States," with the affirmative arguing that to

insure effective development the government should not only generate power but distribute it as well.

Another illustration is found in recent debates on the question, "Resolved, that the direct primary should be abolished." Many affirmative teams, perhaps more because they felt the audience would not be satisfied with a merely destructive attitude than because they were aiming at the unexpected, not merely attacked the primary but also presented a definite substitute to take its place.

(4) *Unusual definition of terms or interpretation of the question.* Whether you aim at such an interpretation or whether your interpretation merely seems unusual to your opponents, a case so based may give the opposing team a lively time. The final court of appeal as to the reasonableness of definition or interpretation is the audience.

Recently the Michigan Debate League discussed the proposition, "Resolved, that our present Latin American policy should be condemned." The usual affirmative arguments dealt with imperialism, violation of international law, threat to world peace, etc. In one interesting debate, however, an affirmative team representing one of the member colleges condemned the United States policy toward Latin America on the grounds that we have vacillated and not gone far enough. Instead of talking about imperialism, they argued for voluntary protectorates, administered in the interests of Latin America, the United States, and the world.

(5) *Early presentation of complete plan.* Very often the affirmative speakers wait until the third speech to show exactly how their proposal will operate. It may prove a bit disconcerting to opponents to do this in the very first speech; at the same time you play fair with your hearers by holding nothing back.

(6) *Presentation in the first speech of the main part of the affirmative case.* The other speakers must be able to adapt and extemporize, using much of their

time for running rebuttal and the presentation of additional evidence.

(7) *Counterproposition.* A negative case which takes this form is usually unexpected in itself. It is doubly unexpected if presented in the opening, rather than the third, speech. On the other hand, you must decide whether such presentation loses more in giving the opponents time to prepare an answer than it gains in unexpectedness and in illuminating the audience.

In summary, then, it is plain that strategy is a matter of individual and team judgment. Whether a particular type or a combination or none at all should be used depends on questions, opponents, team members, audience. The goal is a contest that is at the same time an interesting public discussion. Strategy, like many other matters, must always be kept in its place as a means to the attainment of this ideal.

CHAPTER VI

PRESENTING THE DEBATE

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I. The Day Of The Debate

Active preparation should not last into the actual day of the debate, though of course individual speakers cannot be expected to banish the whole affair from their minds. Relaxation and freedom from worry are essential. A good night's sleep the night before (not a debate meeting that lasts until midnight, and better none at all!), regular classes until noon to keep minds off the debate, some brisk exercise after lunch, a nap and perhaps a movie, a quick invigorating bath, a light easily digested supper—this regimen for the last day experience has shown to be trustworthy in most cases.

Such an eleventh hour preparation of mind and body will avail but little, however, if debaters are already fagged by late hours,—no matter whether the reason be studies, outside work, debate meetings, or "dates"—and bad habits of eating and general hygiene. A debater needs to be in training as does an athlete, and debate directors,

whether in high school or college, might well be more insistent on some common-sense training rules. A coach may himself be the worst offender in keeping his debaters long and unreasonable hours.

Many coaches insist that their debaters try out the acoustics of a strange auditorium before the debate. This is a very sensible procedure, for though it is unnecessary in the majority of cases, now and then a hall will be found that has such peculiar acoustic properties that the strange team is, at least for a time, at a disadvantage. It goes without saying that the home team should have some practice in delivery in the hall where they expect to speak.

Finally, debaters should not arrive at the place of the debate more than ten or fifteen minutes before the contest is scheduled to begin. That allows ample time for them to meet chairman and opponents, and judges if that be desired. A long wait is both tiresome and nerve-racking. It is equally bad for them to dash in at the last minute and hurry immediately to the platform.

It is a perfectly sensible arrangement for the debaters to meet the judges in advance, and they certainly should meet the chairman and their opponents. A brief, informal chat with members of the opposing team does much to remove the atmosphere of stiffness and suspicion and hostility. A debate should be a friendly discussion, not a battle to the death. The day is past when a good coach herds his protegés off into a room and keeps them there *incommunicado* until he receives word to release them for the arena. Teams should have separate rooms in which to meet, and the coach may wish to give his team a final "fight talk," but let them meet their opponents in friendly fashion before the visors are lowered!

II. During And After The Debate

Once the debaters take their places on the platform they must go it alone; the coach must sit on the side-

lines. Coaching from the audience is decidedly bad form, and a director should never indulge in it. He need not keep his face expressionless as the debate progresses, for approval naturally expressed may give considerable encouragement to his students. On the other hand, there are coaches who show disapproval of what a student is doing by such violent facial contortions that they make themselves ridiculous to other members of the audience and disconcert the students. As coach, make yourself just one of the audience as nearly as you can in your various responses.

This advice is not incompatible with the taking of notes during the debate. Each debate should prepare for the next, and one of the best ways to make it serve that end is for the coach to jot down useful points while they are fresh. These serve as a starting point for discussion at the next squad meeting, which should follow as soon as possible, preferably the next day.

Criticisms and suggestions should be secured from the judges. As pointed out elsewhere, a single critic judge should briefly state to the audience the reasons for his decision, but in addition he should be expected to give a detailed criticism of the debate to the teams and coaches afterward. When three judges are used, they, too, should be willing to offer suggestions. In these "post-mortems," as they have been called, the coach should set an example of good sportsmanship. Never should he "crab" a decision, never should he let his debaters do it. The after-debate discipline may be more valuable than that secured in the contest itself.

And finally, be careful how you react to the debaters themselves. If the decision has gone against them, they feel worse than you do; so don't upbraid them. Praise the green man, encourage them all; the next day is soon enough for detailed adverse criticism. On the other hand, a team that has won sometimes needs to have its self-complacency jarred a bit. Use your best judgment

in proceeding for the forensic and general development of your students.

III. Platform Conventions

A. *Stage Furniture*

The customary furnishings are tables for each team large enough to accomodate three chairs comfortably and of such shape and dimensions as to be used for writing purposes, chairs for the debaters, a chair for the presiding officer, and a speaker's stand of some sort. This stand should be placed far enough down stage, that is, toward the audience, that one standing by it is in the best place for being heard.

On each table there should be a pitcher of water and glasses. The contest debater is not unique in being afflicted with a dry mouth at times. The story is told of a man who, after listening to an address by William Jennings Bryan, unsympathetically remarked, "Well, that's the first time ever I heard a windmill run by water!"

The matter of lighting is important. There should be sufficient light to enable the speakers to read notes easily.

Despite the fact that clothes can scarcely be considered stage furniture, a word should be said concerning them. How should debaters dress? With no desire of issuing fashion dicta, the question can be answered very briefly. Dress neatly and attractively without ostentation; clothes should not call attention to themselves. Girls on a team will do well to wear dresses somewhat similar. Likewise with boys' suits and neckties. One light suit and two dark ones do not make a pleasing impression; let neckties be all bows or all four-in-hands.

B. *Speaking Arrangements*

It is customary, though not necessary of course, for the affirmative team to sit on the right side of the plat-

form, the negative team on the left side. These directions are from the standpoint of the speakers; from the standpoint of the audience, the affirmative sits on the left side, the negative on the right. The two teams should take their places on the platform at the same time and sit down at the same time.

The usual number of speakers is three, though there is a tendency to reduce the number to two. When there are three speakers on each side the constructive speeches are usually ten minutes long, the rebuttals five minutes long. If the number of speakers is smaller, the length of speeches is increased. All sorts of variations are possible, even in the orthodox, American-style debate, extending as far as the elimination of separate rebuttal speeches altogether.

The affirmative always speaks first in constructive speeches, the negative speaks first in rebuttal. Hence the affirmative opens and closes the debate. Speakers from the two teams alternate. When there are only two members on a team, the second constructive negative speaker may speak first in rebuttal, combining the two into one speech for which he is allowed time equal to the sum of the lengths of a regular constructive and a regular rebuttal speech.

In high school debating an intermission of from three to five minutes is sometimes allowed between the last constructive speech and the first rebuttal to allow the debaters to gather their forces for the final siege. If the contest is a real give-and-take affair throughout the main speeches, as it should be, this intermission, it seems to me, tends to slow up the discussion rather than add to its effectiveness. It does, of course, give the audience chance for brief relaxation.

C. *The Chairman and His Duties*

The presiding officer should be a man or woman who puts both audience and speakers at their ease and

who appreciates that he, or she, is not the main speaker of the evening. The only time when a chairman is justified in speaking except with the greatest brevity is when the judges are making out their ballots and the gap before the decision is announced needs to be bridged. The specific duties of a chairman are to state the subject for debate and the sides upheld by the respective schools, introduce the speakers, and announce the decision.

There are various ways in which the speakers may be presented, but it is suggested that the simplest and most natural way is to introduce them individually when their respective turns come to speak in construction. Satisfactory phraseology is: "The debate will be opened by Mr. A. of——— College." "The first negative speaker is Mr. B. of Asherville high school." "The negative argument will be continued by Miss C." "Miss D will close the constructive case for the affirmative."

To save time and not to interrupt the battle of wits, the chairman often refrains from individual introduction of rebuttal speakers, who are already known to the audience, simply stating at the opening of the rebuttal period that the speakers will follow one another without further ado.

A chairman can be particularly exasperating when it comes to announcing the decision of the judges, and many seem to revel in the opportunity,—making irrelevant remarks, telling stories that might seem funny at another time, using extreme deliberation in opening envelopes. As a device for heightening the suspense a chairman sometimes announces each judge's vote—not by name, of course—as he opens the ballots. This is all very well if the first two ballots do not agree, but if they do, the third ballot is pretty much of an anti-climax. The better method is to open all the ballots and announce the complete result: "The decision is two for the affirmative, one for the negative" or "The judges have decided unanimously for the negative."

The chairman should also see that a scattered audience is consolidated front and center as much as possible. Front rows of empty seats often constitute a formidable abyss for the speaker to span. Hearers will usually respond to a pleasantly insistent request that they move forward.

Appeals and questions of parliamentary procedure are naturally addressed to the presiding officer, and his decision concerning them is final.

If the discussion is in the form of an open forum[1] or if an open forum is to follow the debate, the selection of a suitable chairman is doubly important. Upon him rests much of the responsibility of keeping the discussion alive and pointed. He must give an impression of absolute fairness, must be able to summarize the discussion up to a given point so that everyone sees the significant points, and must have the ability to call forth active participation by numerous members of the audience.

D. *Addressing Chairman, Opponents, and Audience*

The usual response to the presiding officer's introduction is a simple "Mr. Chairman," although there may be particular circumstances under which he should be more specifically addressed as "Mr. President," or "Mr. Moderator." When a woman is presiding, she should always be addressed as "Madam Chairman" whether she is married or single.

Many debaters make the mistake of addressing the chair while they are walking from their places to the speaker's stand. They should not do it on the run, but should address the chairman while standing erect, at ease, and *stationary*, either where they arise from their chairs at the table, or after they have reached the speaker's stand.

In addressing the audience, the customary wording is merely "Ladies and Gentlemen," though there is no

[1] Cf. page 27.

reason why such wording should be inflexibly adhered to. Suppose a home audience is being addressed, most of whom are known to the speakers. "Friends" would be entirely appropriate, though that would probably be a bit too informal for a member of the visiting team. Depending on circumstances, wordings such as these are not only possible, but probably more desirable than the formal "Ladies and Gentlemen": "Members of the League of Women Voters," "Fellow Students," "Voters of the Sixth Ward." Addressing the audience should be no mere empty formality but a means of dignified but friendly approach.

What about addressing judges and opponents? In general, it should not be done specifically; proceed on the assumption that they fall under the general classification of "Ladies and Gentlemen." To single them out as "worthy" opponents and "honorable" judges is almost to imply doubt as to whether they deserve such appellatives. Although judges should never be specifically addressed, there may often be times when one can gracefully speak to opponents, thereby making the total effect less stereotyped. For example "Gentlemen from——," "Visitors from abroad."

When referring to opponents during the debate itself, debaters should use variety and make references seem simple and informal. Vary the usual "our opponents" with the "the second negative speaker," "the gentlemen on the other side of the house (English)," "our friends of the affirmative," "the gentlemen from——," etc.

Recently, at least partly as the result of visits by English teams, the custom has developed of referring to both opponents and colleagues by name. It is certainly less rigidly formal to speak of "Mr. Newton" than of "the first speaker of the opposition" and to refer to "Miss Adams" than to "my first colleague." In high school debating if the team members are quite youthful, such references are perhaps a bit out of place.

The opening speaker may well preface his remarks with a few brief words of welcome to the members of the visiting team. In case the affirmative is debating away from home, these remarks, instead of being a welcome, may express the pleasure of the visiting team at being present. The first negative speaker will briefly respond with an appropriate sentence or two. An emphatic caution is needed here. These sentiments should not be uttered as mere "applesauce"; if their expression is not genuine, then it should be left out entirely. It must not sound stereotyped, and it must coalesce with the rest of the speech. Therefore, though the first speech may otherwise be memorized, the welcome or response should be extemporaneous and should be *adapted* to relations between the two schools, personal acquaintance of the teams, the chairman, or the special circumstances under which the debate is held. There is often a chance for a little fun, and it helps any debate to be started with a touch of humor.

Time-keepers should not start to count time until after these preliminaries are over.

Just as the opening of a debate speech should sound a note of simple friendly discussion, so it should end without affectation. "I thank you" savors of theatrics. The conclusion should conclude.

E. *Time-keeping*

American contest debating will probably never allow the complete freedom from time limits that prevails in the debating societies of the English universities, though there seems to be a tendency to insist less vehemently on rigid limits.

There are various methods of keeping time, but usually it is done by two people, often representing both schools. If it can be avoided, coaches should not act as timekeepers. They cannot sit back, either literally or figuratively, and get a view of the whole debate when

obliged to follow the second hand of a watch. Furthermore, time-keepers must sit close in front of the speaker's stand so as to be sure of being seen by the speakers, and if a coach sits there, he must have a "poker" face indeed not to prove disturbing to the equanimity of his debaters.

A stop watch can be used, but an ordinary watch, with which that of the other time-keeper is compared, is perfectly satisfactory.

When it comes to giving the signals, various methods are used. In general, it may be said that the best method is one that is definite for the debaters without being over-obtrusive and distracting for the audience. Judged by such a criterion, bells and gavels are out of place.

Probably the most common system is for one time-keeper to rise in warning at the end of eight minutes, for both to rise as a final signal.

Another system that much use has proved satisfactory is to employ time cards. One of the time-keepers is supplied with a number of white cards, each bearing a large black numeral running from one to nine. The tenth card bears the fraction one-half. When a debater has spoken for one minute the card bearing the numeral nine is exposed so that he, but not the audience, can see it. This card is kept in sight until card eight is exposed, and so on through the speech. From minute to minute the speaker knows exactly how much time he has left, even down to the last thirty seconds. When the full ten minutes is gone both time-keepers rise, remain standing only long enough to be sure they have been seen by the speaker, and sit down.

It may be objected by those who have never tried this plan that it is apt to confuse the speakers. So it seems, but actual experience proves that they very quickly get used to it and like its precision, precision if the time-keepers are on the job every second! It is urged that time-keepers stand for the final signal, because that needs to be definite and patent to the audience·

and judges, but that they stand only briefly. It is most disconcerting to a speaker and distracting to the audience to have two wooden Indians standing down front when the speaker is trying to clinch a telling point with a final sentence or two.

There is no reason why the members of both teams in a debate should have the same system of time signals. One team may use the cards; the other, not accustomed to them, should not adopt their use without practice and so can have their time-keeper rise or rap for a warning. For the final signal, however, rising of both time-keepers is probably the most common and most satisfactory.

Confusion sometimes arises because warning signals are not seen or heard. Speakers, by a glance or nod, largely unnoticed by the audience, should indicate that they have got the signal; and time-keepers, on their part, should make sure that their signals have been received. If a speaker runs over his final time limit to such an extent that it seems likely he has not seen the signal, it should be repeated. In the case of a speaker who, like Gladstone, in Disraeli's words, is "inebriated with the exuberance of his own verbosity," and refuses to stop, both time-keepers should again rise and remain standing until he subsides.

And that brings us to the question, How much is it permissible to exceed one's time limit? How much may one say after the final signal? The usual answer is; Finish the sentence you are on. Such a rule seems to me a bit too narrow. I should say, rather; Bring the immediate point under discussion to a close within fifteen or twenty seconds. The result will probably be about the same, but there is less tendency to put a paragraph into a sentence by means of numerous conjunctions. A rule should be followed that steers between the extremes of artificial rigidity and a laxity of which advantage is taken. As a matter of fact, if a speaker runs over more than a fourth or third of a minute, what he says after

that is of less than no value, for the audience, including the judges, is restless and resentful.

F. *Judges and Ballots*

Judges should be seated in different parts of the hall, far enough forward so that they can hear and see, far enough back so that it will be some test of the speakers' ability to make them hear distinctly. They should be supplied with something in the way of a board or other stiff writing pad, with blank cards or paper on which to make notes, with printed instructions, and with a prepared ballot.

As soon as the debate is over, each judge prepares his individual ballot. There is no conference as in the case of a jury, for a unanimous verdict is not necessary. An usher or other student should be selected in advance to collect the ballots and take them to the presiding officer. So that he will not waste time in hunting for the judges, they should be pointed out to him before the debate.

Judges vary in the length of time they require to make their decision, and they should not be unduly hurried. Above everything else, the person designated to collect the ballots should not hover over them waiting for the fateful envelope. If he finds a judge is not ready, he should retire considerably farther than the judge's elbow.

During this period while the judges are preparing their ballots there may be music or remarks by the chairman to fill in the time, or the audience may simply visit. Often its members are glad of a chance to cease the role of listeners for a while.

A debate will run off smoothly if details are planned. The total result will be anything but smooth if advance arrangements are lacking.

IV. Working at the Tables

It has been said that there should be three chairs at each table. Infrequently an alternate sits with the

speakers, but such an arrangement is not common. He is apt to be more bother than he is worth, making suggestions to speakers that they do not appreciate and searching in the rebuttal box for cards they do not want when they do wish to use the box themselves.

Depending on whether there is a team captain and on how much responsibility is placed on him, the team may be seated so that the captain is between the other members of the team, to facilitate conference. Or they may simply be in one, two, three order, the order of speaking.

Rebuttal boxes, reference books, brief cases, and other implements of war may well be committed to some camp follower to deposit on the platform in advance of the entry of the teams. Few debaters can make a favorable intitial impression when burdened down with a brief case, a rebuttal box, a bound volume of the *Annals of the American Academy,* and two volumes of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica.* In general, the fewer books that clutter up a team's table the better, but if it is felt that a considerable quantity of such heavy artillery is needed, then let it be ranged in place beforehand so that the audience will recover its equanimity before the debate opens. There is, of course, no objection to a debater's carrying in with him a rebuttal box or a book or two.

Question may well be raised, however, as to the practice of each speaker's having a rebuttal box on the table. They make a formidable array and give a formal, rigid atmosphere. Even though each debater has a box for the filing of material, all need not necessarily bring them and all the contents to the debate. A *team* rebuttal box, on the other hand, may be very useful and not over-conspicuous.[2] There was a time when college teams regularly used boxes for every speaker; the tendency is definitely away from this practice to-day.

Whether there is a definite captain or not, there

[2] Cf. page 90.

should be the closest teamwork among the speakers on a team. Each must listen to every opponent, especially the one immediately preceding him, and he must also keep one ear open for what his colleagues say. Unless they are wedded to set speeches and declaim them through though the heavens fall, there is always the likelihood that they will so adapt that he must change what his planned (not memorized) speech called for, or what he had planned to say in running rebuttal. Such attention is also needed so that speakers may buttress each other, re-establishing colleagues' arguments that have been seriously attacked, and advancing arguments that they have not had time to handle.

Conference at the tables is essential. No matter how careful the preparation of rebuttal material and the division of rebuttal points has been, new developments will arise, and to meet them team members must confer. But not too vociferously. Let it be in whispers that disturb neither the audience nor the speaker on the floor.

In this same connection, individual team members should be careful about their personal attitudes at the table. There are debaters who give the impression of being decidedly supercilious. Some are just too bored to take notes. Others get highly excited and advertise the fact to the four corners of the hall. Still others sit on the edge of their chairs with the strained intensity of a cat at a mousehole. When a luckless argument of the opposing speaker sticks its head out, it is seized voraciously and committed with patent exultation to a rebuttal card. What is wrong with these various attitudes? The answer is obvious: they call attention to themselves. The debater who exhibits such attitudes lowers himself in the respect of the audience and is definitely discourteous to the speaker on the floor.

A supply of blank cards is indispensable. Even though the 3 x 5 cards are used for advance preparation, some speakers prefer the 4 x 6 cards or even larger ones for making rebuttal notes at the table.

Because there are always so many things in a debate, on both sides, that "just must be said" and because time limits mercifully save the audience from having to listen to all these must-be-saids, a sense of values, a sense of issues, a sense of the basic and truly significant in the discussion, is essential. Advance study, practice debates, careful planning, all help, but the stress of the actual debate is the real test. A team should prepare in advance in the light of their best judgment and should take with them to the platform a brief list of their most important tasks and most significant emphases. Such a typed list, on a card in the cover of the rebuttal box, is a handy lighthouse to look to now and then as the arguments grow befogged. Two such cards, one affirmative, one negative, survivors of an actual debate season, are reproduced here. The question was "Resolved, that Congress should be given power to over-ride decisions of the Supreme Court declaring acts of Congress unconstitutional."

Affirmative Suggestions

1. Stress issues & contentions; make opps. meet.
2. Insist that discuss. be common-sense consid. of live public quest. & not mere academic debate.
   a. Ridicule over-use of authorities.
3. Don't let neg. over-do flag-waving; show we are real protectors of Constitution.
4. Don't let them say we haven't established need and shown how plan meets need.
   a. Quote Court's own words on judicial legis.
5. Drive home demand for list of foolish or vicious laws passed by Congress.
6. Don't let neg. put us on defensive.
7. Rebuttal
   a. Organize around issues & make opps. meet.
   b. Watch for our constructive args. ignored by opps.

Negative Suggestions

1. Keep constantly attacking; don't let them ever put us on defensive.
2. Adapt to case of opps. but hold to our own contentions if at all possible.
3. Press home questions.
   a. Parliamentary govt. b. List of authorities.
4. Stress
   a. Congress would be supreme; able to pass law depriving Court of review power.
   b. Judicial power given Congress; *final* judge of constitutionality.
5. Rebuttal
   a. Re-emphasize constructive arguments and watch for those ignored.
   b. Buttress one another.

One final mechanical device should be mentioned. The last rebuttal speaker, from the outset of the debate, may profitably make a parallel outline of the two cases as presented. For this purpose he should use, not evidence cards, but sheets of paper. He may have an outline of his own team's case ready beforehand and during the debate make an outline only of the opposing case. The important thing is that he arrange his notes in such a way that he have a birdseye view of the two cases as they develop side by side, so that he may give the audience a final similar understanding. Such an outline is also useful for the other members of the team to refer to as the debate progresses.

V. Opening Affirmative Speech

The opening and closing speeches, whether affirmative or negative, are most important from the standpoint of *persuading* the audience to respond in the desired fashion. The opening speeches should enlighten the

hearers and prepare them for the rest of the discussion. They should not be feints to draw opponents out or to throw them off the track. Such tactics have played a very considerable part in alienating popular regard for contest debating.

On the other hand, they may or may not contain a partition of the entire case. There is an audience advantage of clarity in thus presenting an outline of contentions in advance. There is a serious opponent disadvantage of telling in advance the trail to be followed. The nature of the question and of opponents enters in here, but the audience must be remembered too. They want to know what it was all about when the "shouting and the tumult dies."

Since most of the points mentioned here have already been discussed in one connection or another,[3] a simple listing is deemed sufficient.

(1) It should contain a simple, unaffected expression of satisfaction at welcoming visiting opponents or at participating in the debate.

(2) Time may be saved by not repeating the proposition if it appears on printed programs or has been clearly stated by the chairman.

(3) There is no objection to having this speech memorized if direct conversational contact can at the same time be maintained with the audience.

(4) It is essential to create an impression of utter fairness and frankness in presenting such preliminaries as history, definitions, waived and admitted matter, and issues.[4]

(5) Direct argument should not start too early in the speech, but an adequate proportion of the total time should be devoted to definite advancement of the affirmative case.

[3] Cf. *The Final Team*, Ch. IV.

[4] As an example of a speech in which terms are simply defined and issues are presented as common-sense questions, attention is called to Appendix IV.

VI. Opening Negative Speech

The first negative speech likewise has definite functions and characteristics.

(1) It should contain an informal, unaffected welcome, or response, as the case may be.

(2) It should definitely adapt to the issues, definitions, etc. as given in the first affirmative speech. Quibbling is to be avoided if possible, but if the negative cannot accept certain points as presented, the first speaker should make clear on what grounds they disagree. On the other hand, if the first affirmative speaker plunges into argument without sufficient explanation to enlighten the audience, the first negative should capitalize on this weakness. The audience will appreciate this explanatory material as an aid to getting their bearings, and the speaker can use the opportunity which the first affirmative lost,—of presenting the material fairly but in such a light as to predispose the audience favorably toward *his* side of the argument.

(3) The first negative speech should raise numerous doubts and objections as to the wisdom of the affirmative plan. This may be done in various ways, including the laying down of more or less definite tasks for the affirmative and the asking of questions, rhetorical and direct. Opening sentences of a first negative speech that illustrate such raising of objections are given on page 156-7, in the discussion of the strategy of Raising Objections.

(4) It should meet the first affirmative speech head-on. It should serve notice in no uncertain terms that here is a negative team that proposes to adapt throughout the debate.

(5) At the same time, it should not be too pugnacious. Because the first negative speaker opens the attack, it does not necessarily follow that he should do it with a machine gun. All speakers, whether affirmative

or negative, need to remember that debate is "cooperative controversy."

VII. Final Speeches

Closing speeches, constructive and rebuttal, affirmative and negative, should bring together the loose ends and give an impression of completeness.

To secure this result, it is a good device to come back in the concluding sentence to a wording that bears directly on the proposition. Suppose that the proposition is: "Resolved, that the system of trial by jury should be abolished." The last affirmative speaker may conclude: "It is for these reasons that we of the affirmative urge the abolishment of trial by jury." Or the negative arguments may be brought to a close with: "Weighing gains and losses, we still maintain that the system of trial by jury should be retained."

The tone of concluding speeches should be distinctly persuasive, aimed to secure a final favorable response from hearers.

Of one particular device mention should be made. It concerns phraseology, designed to create a cumulative effect, an effect of doing more than is necessary to win one's case, Although I mention it in connection with final speeches, it may be effectively used elsewhere. As a matter of fact, the example given here is from an opening speech for the affirmative on Russian recognition.

> There is but one way to protect American investors and that is by recognition, for without recognition Russia has no responsibility to us, and consequently we can make no claims on her. *To attain this end would yield sufficient benefits to warrant recognition, but it is not all.* We of the affirmative maintain that recognition will open an investment market for American capital and will increase our trade with Europe in general. . .

This bit of technique is given for what it may be worth as a persuasive device. In connection with it,

attention is called to another method of peculiar value in final speeches, discussed on page 153 under the Strategy of Assuming for the Sake of Argument.

VIII. Duties of the Respective Rebuttal Speakers

The order in which the members of a team should speak is determined by the relative effectiveness of the speakers and by the way in which the discussion develops. In general, the climactic order is best, the strongest speaker coming last.

Regardless of the speaking order, every member of the team should take as his own the watchword of the Three Musketeers, "all for one and one for all." Individual stardom is not the proper goal. Teamwork is essential.

When it comes to offering more or less definite suggestions as to what each speaker should do in rebuttal, it needs to be remembered that there is no hard and fast rule to follow. One debate director uses this plan, another follows that. Two plans are presented here in the hope that they may contain practical suggestions. Although different, they are not irreconcilable. That there be a plan of some sort is the important thing. Otherwise rebuttal is pretty sure to be "a haphazard game of give and take."

(1) Collins and Morris in their *Persuasion and Debate* suggest the following plan.[5]

The Part of the First Rebuttal Speaker

The first speaker in rebuttal should be held responsible for a number of the opposition's minor propositions. He should attack briefly but effectively a number of his opponent's lesser propositions. His speech should give the impression that the opposing case is full of countless flaws. This speaker should be

[5] Collins and Morris. *Persuasion and Debate*, p. 186-7. Quoted by permission of Harper and Brothers, publishers.

a man of rapid-fire type, who can "nose out" his opponents' weak points with machine gun speed and force.

The Part of the Second Rebuttal Speaker

Entirely different should be the method of the second rebuttal speaker. He should devote his attention to the one vital and essential issue of the opposition, or the two most important opposing issues, preferably the former. He should use the ammunition of refutation in a smashing broadside to crush the opposition.

The Part of the Third Rebuttal Speaker

The third speaker in rebuttal, holding unquestionably the keynote position in the forensic contest, should combine all forms of attack. He is first the observation officer who at the start of his speech points out to the audience the exact constructive clash of opinion. He next reduces the opposition's case to not more than three or four main issues—the strongholds of his opponents. He mentions next to last that issue which he needs most to attack, and mentions finally that issue which he can most effectively attack. If he is well prepared these are likely to be the same issues.

Briefly, and in a quick, forceful light-artillery attack, the third speaker should demolish the first two or three of the opponents' major issues. With unmistakable effectiveness, he should direct his final destructive fire against the issues which he needs most to attack and the issues which he can most effectively attack. But he should not yet reach his climax.

His final attack should be constructive and offensive. The third speaker's climax should come in the last minute or two of his speech. Then he should summarize, with all the persuasive ammunition he can muster for his own team's case, closing with a final plea for the acceptance or rejection of the resolution.

Other plans than this may be more suitable to particular debates, but some such plan as the one given will safeguard the rebuttal from dwindling into a haphazard game of "give and take."

(2) A plan which the author has used with satisfactory results is one that is based rather closely on the constructive case. Each man is responsible in rebuttal

for the points he has handled in his main speech. He defends them against attack and refutes opposing arguments that can logically be grouped under these same headings. Such a method makes for clear organization and for refutation that is pointed.

As in constructive arguments, however, too close specialization is disastrous. Opponents may not strongly attack a point until after the particular sponsor of that point has spoken in rebuttal. Hence, every member of the team must be able to handle any and all points in rebuttal, either originally, or to buttress a colleague when he can no longer speak.

Possible opposing arguments that are not directly counter to the contentions that this team will present are carefully considered and assigned to different speakers, with the understanding that some one else may have to handle them, depending on how the debate and the rebuttal speeches develop.

The complete division of points is jotted down on a card and kept for reference, in the lid of the rebuttal box if one is used. A sample affirmative card for a debate on condemnation of our present Latin American policy might read something like this:

First Speaker

Imperialism
Economic exploitation
Monroe Doctrine

Second Speaker

Haiti
Santo Domingo } Benefits
Nicaragua } Injuries
"White Man's Burden"
Denial of ideals

Third Speaker

Ill will

Suggested remedies
Danger of European aggression

Of course there are always a number of miscellaneous points presented by opponents, some important, some minor but producing considerable effect on the audience. Some of these may not have been foreseen. The only thing to do is to confer at the table as to answer and answerer.

The first negative speaker at the outset briefly summarizes the debate as it has developed, pointing out to the audience what are the significant points of disagreement between the two teams, naturally amplifying what his own team has done and diminishing what his opponents have accomplished. If he amplifies for the latter, it is the number and size of the remaining tasks before them. If the negative speaker fails to summarize, the first affirmative, who follows him, does so, thereby securing the gratitude of the audience for his side for thus summarizing and simplifying. Such summary should center about issues if possible. It is very easy to say: "You have heard many arguments passed back and forth here tonight, and now as we start our rebuttal I believe we will all profit by reviewing briefly what the two teams have said and by trying to see what are the important points of disagreement between them."

The last rebuttal speakers, both affirmative and negative, in addition to refuting opponents' arguments, so apportion their time and emphasis as strongly to reemphasize their side's constructive arguments. Always there is a final persuasive appeal for adoption or rejection of the proposition, as the case may be. The last negative leaves unanswered objections piled high. The last affirmative surmounts the objections, emphasizes what the negative have failed to do, and pleads for constructive attitude and constructive action. Each must be careful not to exaggerate what his team has done and to "forget" what his opponents have done.

IX. A Matter of Comparative Values

Throughout this book it has been constantly emphasized that debate is discussion, genuine, two-sided discussion; that it is not a question of one side's being wrong and the other side's being right; that discussion of any debatable question should consist of a weighing of values, a balancing of strengths and weaknesses. As in preparation, so in presentation, this idea and ideal should be kept uppermost.

In an article on "No-Decision Debates" in *The Gavel* of Delta Sigma Rho for January 1929, Ewald T. Grether quotes the concluding remarks of a University of California debater in a no-decision contest with Stanford University. Because it so well illustrates the spirit that should animate both decision and non-decision debating, the excerpt is reproduced here:

> We have not attempted to convince you that we alone are correct. However, we have attempted to present what we consider to be as sound a case as can be made for the affirmative of the proposition. [In print this may sound apologetic; the voice and manner of the speaker would have prevented such an impression in actual delivery.] It is your privilege to draw your own conclusions after weighing the complete case as presented by both sides.

CHAPTER VII

JUDGING THE DEBATE[1]

I. Nature Of The Judge's Vote
II. Who Is A Good Debate Judge?
    A. He Should Be Informed and Alert
    B. He Should Be Fair and Open-minded
    C. He Should Be Familiar with Contest Debating
III. Instructions To Judges
IV. Ballots
V. Supplementary Suggestions To Judges
VI. The Single Critic Judge And His Duties
VII. Securing And Paying Judges
    A. Spirit
    B. Nominating Judges
    C. Inviting Judges
    D. Paying Judges
VIII. Some Additional Suggestions To Coaches
IX. The Audience As Judge

No question in the field of debate is fraught with more high-power explosives than is that of judges and judging. Students and teachers, debaters and coaches, authorities and those who admit they are,—all have argued on whether debates should be judged, and if so, how.

There was a time when all contest debates were judged by a board of judges. Then, because it was difficult, if not impossible, to secure three people qualified to act, the single expert or critic judge was introduced in many schools. However, it was argued in some quarters that to gain the decision remained the chief goal, resulting in artificiality and questionable practices. Hence developed sentiment for audience votes and decisionless debating.

[1] Cf. Ch. II.

To-day all of these various forms are in use and will probably continue so. Judges will probably always be used, even in schools where other types of debating are also found. This is particularly true of high schools, but that fact does not mean that high schools should confine themselves exclusively to this type. They will improve the training they give their students if they give them practice in other forms.

In the following discussion it is assumed that either a board of three judges or a single critic judge is used.

I. Nature of the Judge's Vote[2]

The debate judge, whether he acts alone or is one of three, should vote as a critic. It is his business to decide which of the two teams, in his estimation, has done the better debating. He does *not* vote as a member of a legislature does, on the basis of everything he knows about the question and of his own views as to the correct course of action. Personal views must be laid aside and a decision rendered on the basis of what the two teams say and how they say it. It is entirely possible and proper for a judge to believe in private operation of Muscle Shoals and still vote for a team that advocates government operation.

As a matter of fact, though personal bias on a question may be laid aside quite successfully by the conscientious individual, judges will always differ more or less widely in their reactions to a given speaker, a given argument, or a debate as a whole. One feels that one type of delivery is best; his colleague may abominate it. The personal element will always be a factor, and one that is largely intangible.

However, it is undoubtedly true that, by and large, there is greater uniformity of opinion to-day on the part of those who act frequently as debate judges than ever

[2] Cf. O'Neill, Laycock, and Scales. *Argumentation and Debate*, p. 369-73. The Macmillan Company. 1917.

before. It has been the aim of this book to outline qualities and methods that are commonly agreed to characterize effective debating.

Before passing on to a consideration of who are qualified to cast valid ballots as judges, let us pause long enough to mention one thing that the judge's vote never should be. I refer to the so-called consolation vote. It is not unheard of even in otherwise enlightened communities. When the judge casts a consolation vote, he votes deliberately for the weaker team because it *is* the weaker team. He usually figures that the debate is so one-sided that both of his fellow judges are sure to vote for the stronger team, and that he will take the sting out of a unanimous defeat by giving the weaker team his one vote. Comment is unnecessary except to point out that our soft-hearted judge may not be the only one of the three so afflicted. Though the judges could not be expected to admit it, two or even three consolation votes explain some otherwise inexplicable decisions.

II. Who is a Good Debate Judge?

Obviously no one who does not understand the true nature of the judge's vote, as just explained. But let us go further. A good debate judge should possess the following qualifications:

A. *He Should Be Informed And Alert*

Unless he is reasonably abreast of current affairs, there is a danger that, like the uninformed coach,[3] he cannot successfully evaluate the facts presented. On the other hand, a person who is really an authority on the subject under discussion not infrequently holds such positive views one way or the other that he is unable to give a fair hearing to both sides of the argument.

To show that this is no idle, hypothetical situation,

[3] Cf. *How Much Should the Coach Do?* Ch. III.

let me instance the case of a prominent university dean a few years ago when asked to judge a debate on the ship subsidy. Though a former college debater and an experienced judge, he declined on the ground of bias that he feared he could not shelve.

B. *He Should Be Fair and Open-minded*

The necessity of laying aside one's own views on the question under consideration has already been sufficiently discussed.

C. *He Should Be Familiar with Contest Debating*

Neither here nor elsewhere is the implication intended that contest debating is an academic, esoteric thing as distinguished from genuine public discussion. The emphasis throughout has been quite the reverse. At the same time, it is obvious that, since it is a game, there are certain rules and regulations that the umpire needs to know.

So much in general. The question now arises: What sort of people have these qualifications? Before an answer is suggested, let it be clearly understood that it, too, can be only in general terms. A man who by training and experience seems ideal may be quite out of the question for a given debate because of bias of some sort or for other reasons.

In general, then, debate coaches, other teachers of speech who understand debating, former college debaters who have maintained an interest in the game (this includes members of honorary forensic fraternities), and various others who by training and by experience in judging are competent—these groups constitute good sources for debate judges. For many high school debates nowadays college and university intercollegiate debaters are being used. It is good practice for these students, and usually they are entirely competent. The

sort of debating which the particular college encourages is, of course, significant. Is it necessary to say that sex is not a distinguishing qualification? Other things being equal, women are as competent judges as men.

If the members of certain groups are especially good judges, are there any corresponding groups that should be avoided? Yes, but, again, in general. To make an inclusive classification, avoid those who are not familiar with contest debating and those whose bias will prevent a fair decision.

Regarding knowledge of debating, it is not enough that a man should be an outstanding citizen or even a public speaker of some experience. Because the local banker plays a good game of golf does not seem to qualify him to referee basketball games in adjoining towns. The analogy can be safely carried over into debating.

As to bias, we are less suspicious to-day of alumni of an opposing school who otherwise are thoroughly qualified and are less afraid that an opposing coach will "slip over on us" a former teacher or a personal friend. While one should not be too gullible and ingenuous, still these are matters of simple good faith, and one must proceed accordingly, as well as in accordance with his best judgment. As a matter of fact, the alumnus or former teacher, if he is a conscientious individual, is quite as likely to "lean over backward," as we say, in his attempt to be fair as he is to favor his own school or his friend. In case of doubt he figures that he must offset personal bias and so votes for the other team.

Similarly with the judge who the last time or two voted for one of the schools represented. It is entirely human that he should make perfectly sure that that team is quite decidedly the better one before he will vote for its school again. The moral? Don't have the same judge too often.

And now, at the risk of misunderstanding, I mention

three particular groups as, *in general,* not being ideal sources for debate judges: preachers, lawyers, public school administrators. College training in debate and experience in judging, however, may offset the defects listed and make these people as valuable judges as can be secured anywhere. To explain the ban: preachers because of set, and often undesirable, speech habits and because of a tendency to respond unduly to emotional appeal; lawyers because by training they attach great importance to black-and-white evidence and so tend to place too heavy a burden of proof on the affirmative, who often simply cannot produce the evidence demanded[4]; school superintendents and principals because in judging high school debates there is danger of inter-school politics. The nearby school is apt to be favored at the expense of the more distant one because of reciprocal relations in various activities such as athletics, the theory, to use a crude expression, too often seeming to be "You scratch my back and I'll scratch yours."

III. Instructions To Judges

Several sets of instructions to judges are shown here. The first is in the nature of a question summary of the significant points stressed in this book. College students going out to judge for the first few times can profitably use it, and coaches may find it expedient to send copies in advance to judges who they feel need enlightenment. Naturally, if such a course of procedure is followed, there should be a liberal admixture of tact.

The second form is recommended for the use of the judge with ordinary critic ability. For the competent single judge, printed instructions are unnecessary.

The instructions may appear on the same sheet with the ballot or, probably better, they may be separate. The criticism blank may or may not be furnished the judge. Unless the ability of the judge is beyond question, it is

[4] Cf. *Formulating the Proposition.* Ch. III.

better to err on the side of giving unnecessary instructions than of failing to give those that are needed. Once more it is a question of adaptation, this time by the coach to the judge.

Form One—Detailed

Instructions

As a judge of this debate, you are expected to lay aside all personal opinions as to the merits of the question under discussion and to award your decision to the team which, on the whole, does the more effective debating.

The following factors should be considered in arriving at your final decision. You are the judge of the importance that should be attached to each. It may, however, be pointed out that, inasmuch as debating is something more than an oratorical contest, items that fall under the heading of content should be given more weight than excellence in presentation. This is especially true of ability in refutation, which many judges regard as the most significant criterion of good debating.

1. Analysis and organization
   a. Are the definition of terms and the analysis and interpretation of the proposition sound and reasonable?
   b. Is the faculty of analysis exercised throughout, in the following through of crucial issues?
   c. Is the organization of the team case and the individual speeches clear without being obtrusively bald?
2. Information and evidence
   a. Does the speaker show convincing knowledge of the question in its various phases?
   b. Does he avoid both unsupported assertions and the continual citation of authorities?
   c. Is there sufficient evidence without being wearisome?
   d. Is evidence used effectively and honestly?
3. Argument—reasoning
   a. Is the reasoning sound? Is it quick and agile?
   b. Are fallacies avoided and detected?
   c. Is there evidence of original thinking?
4. Adaptability
   Is the debater able to extemporize and effectively adapt to opponents' arguments in his main speech?

5. Ability in rebuttal
   a. Is the rebuttal speech clear-cut in its attack on significant points of disagreement between the two teams?
   b. Is it organized about main arguments?
   c. Is there a convincing vigor and spontaneity that comes from familiarity with all phases of the question?
   d. Is significant new evidence presented, or is it merely a repetition of that presented earlier?
   e. Does the speaker use all his time?
6. Effectiveness in public speaking
   a. Does the debater speak with forceful, direct communicativeness, or does he "orate"? Does the use of notes interfere with his audience contact?
   b. Does he adapt, in manner and content, to opponents and to audience situation? Does he extemporize effectively?
   c. Is he persuasive as well as convincing? Does he introduce variety and humor effectively?
   d. Does he give the impression of genuineness and sincerity?
   e. Does he seem at home on the platform in carriage and gesture?
   f. Does he use good diction and pronounce correctly? Are slips due to ignorance and carelessness or to extemporaneous speaking?
   g. Has he a pleasant voice? Does he use it intelligently? Does he speak distinctly?
7. Attitude
   a. Is the speaker courteous to opponents, chairman, audience?
   b. Is he over-controversial? Is he ever willing to yield?
   c. Is he cocky and bombastic?
   d. Is he offensively sarcastic?
8. Teamwork
   a. Do the members of the team coöperate to present a unified constructive case and to assist each other in rebuttal?
   b. Which team, regardless of individual stars, constitutes the better balanced aggregation?

Criticism Blank[5]

Points to be Considered	Affirmative				Negative			
	1	2	3	Team	1	2	3	Team
Analysis & Organization								
Information & Evidence								
Argument—Reasoning								
Adaptability								
Rebuttal								
Effective Delivery								
Attitude								
Teamwork								
Summary								

The judge may use this blank or not, as he desires. He may grade individuals and teams with percentages, or with + for good, — for poor, and O for indifferent, or by any other system that he cares to use. This blank is purely for his own use.

FORM TWO—ABRIDGED

Instructions

Each judge shall vote solely on the basis of which team in his opinion does the better debating. It is understood that effective debating consists of:

1. Correct analysis of the proposition and a sound, clearly organized case based upon such analysis.
2. Convincing knowledge of the question and telling use of evidence.
3. Quick, straight thinking.
4. Ability to extemporize and to adapt to opponents' arguments throughout the debate.
5. Rebuttal speeches that clearly center about the real issues and that are forceful and convincing in content and delivery.
6. Platform delivery that is distinct, communicative, poised, and persuasive.

[5] Cf. J. M. O'Neill. *The Principles of Effective Debating and How to Judge a Debate.* p. 49. University of Wisconsin Extension Bulletin. 1925.

7. Courteous, reasonable attitude toward occasion, audience, and opponents.
8. Effective teamwork.

The criticism blank already illustrated may be used equally well in connection with this form.

For purposes of comparison, two other sets of instruction are shown here. The first is used by the Michigan High School Debating League. The other is the form employed by the Wisconsin High School Forensic Association. It will be noted that in the latter percentage grades are given competing teams. In both cases these instructions, printed on the back of blank ballots, are sent out to all the member schools in the league.

Michigan Form

The judge shall give but one vote, affirmative or negative, based on effective debating. He shall decide for himself what constitutes effective debating, taking into consideration both argument and delivery. Since a debate is a contest in public speaking, the excessive use of notes or manuscript should count against a speaker. A debate is not only a contest in effective thinking and organization; it is also a contest in effective and interesting presentation. The judge shall lay aside any prejudice he may have on the question, and shall decide strictly on the merits of the debate as presented, not on what he may think are the merits of the question. He shall not under any circumstances give a "consolation vote." There shall be no conference of judges after the debate until the decisions have been handed in. At the close of the debate the judge shall write "affirmative" or "negative" on his ballot, sign and seal it, and hand it to an usher, who shall hand it to the presiding officer. The presiding officer shall open the ballots in the presence of the teams and audience and announce the result. He shall not announce the names of the judges on the ballots.

Wisconsin Form

Without consultation, vote "Affirmative" or "Negative" as the case may be, basing your vote on the debating ability revealed by the two teams: 1. As revealed in their grasp of the vital issues of the question including research, analysis, and the use of evidence; 2. As revealed in the refutation of the arguments of their

opponents; and 3. As revealed in the effectiveness of presentation. No definite percentage grade shall be given each of these phases of the work. They shall simply be vital elements to be considered in forming an estimate of the relative ability of the two teams. Give the winning team one percentage grade of 100 per cent and the other team one percentage grade between 80 and 100 per cent which shall be your estimate of the comparative ability of the two teams

IV. Ballots

Some simple form such as the following is recommended:

Without regard to the merits of the question, in my opinion the better debating was done by the..... team. (affirmative or negative)

Signed.....Judge

An entirely different form, in the nature of a report, is used by Western Reserve University, Cleveland, for numerous off-campus debates in and about the city. These debates are often between two teams from Reserve's own squad, and the single judge is not infrequently an alumnus of the University.

Judge's Report

On the basis of "effective debating" I have given the decision to the.....team.

The .....team was (slightly, much) better in analysis—clearer, sounder, more comprehensive.

The .....team was (slightly, much) stronger in evidence.

The .....team was (slightly, much) more discriminating as to value of opposing argument.

The .....team was (slightly, much) more extempore, more resourceful in answering opponents.

The .....team was (slightly, much) more vivid and forceful in stating their ideas.

The .....team was (slightly, much) more effective in platform delivery.

I would rank the men, as to individual performance, in the following order:

1. ..... 4. .....
2. ..... 5. .....
3. ..... 6. .....

I would rearrange the teams in the following order, judging from their performance in this debate:

1. ..... 1. .....
2. ..... 2. .....
3. ..... 3. .....

I check below the items which every man *especially* needs to improve:

	Names of Speakers					
Analysis						
Evidence						
Contribution to team case						
Judgment in rebuttal						
Clearness (Eng. style)						
Vividness (Eng. style)						
Fluency						
Voice						
Gesture						
Personality						
Other notes						

SIGNED .....

V. Supplementary Suggestions To Judges

(1) For the sake of exposing mistakes sometimes made, I venture to utter two Don't's at this point, even at the risk of insulting the intelligence of most men and women who have acted as judges. The first is: Don't ever decide which team is the winner on the basis of "points" successfully established and maintained. Obviously, it is not the number of points, but their importance, that counts. One argument may go further toward winning or losing a case than half a dozen less significant ones. Furthermore, since debating is also a contest in public speaking, effectiveness in presentation cannot be ignored.

The other Don't is this: Don't vote for a team *simply* because on it is the outstanding star of the debate. A debate team should be a reasonably well-balanced group, though of course such an arrangement is not always possible, especially when numerous members of a squad are given a chance in public performance. Conversely, don't vote against a team *merely* because two of its members are definitely inferior to the third or one is inferior to the other two.

(2) And now for a Do rather than a Don't. Though you are acting as a critic, alone or as one of three, remain one of the audience so far as a common-sense attitude is concerned. When it comes to weighing such matters as interpretation of the proposition, or definition of terms, ask yourself whether they are reasonable and intelligible to the average man on the street, to the general run of people who sit about you. Such questions as these may well arise in your mind: Has the affirmative made the background of this discussion sufficiently clear before starting to argue? From an ordinary common-sense viewpoint, does not the negative have the better of it in challenging the issues outlined by the affirmative? Is this speaker taking too much for granted so far as his hearers are concerned? Why is that speaker so technical and academic?

I have found it illuminating to look about at my fellow listeners from time to time during a debate to see whether they are interested or bored, attracted or antagonized. Debate, like all public speaking, is a two-sided relationship, and your deliberate attention, as judge, to what a speaker is saying may be a far less accurate index of his audience effectiveness than the involuntary attention, or lack of it, on the part of the other listeners.

But is this criterion of popular intelligibility and effectiveness always valid? you ask. And I answer, No. There may be times when specialized, technical information on the part of the audience can be assumed, but such is not the usual situation. Also, a debater or a team may reduce legitimate popular appeal to demagoguery. That also is not common and can be detected by the alert judge.

(3) It is not uncommon to find debates in which the arguments and presentation of the two teams are so evenly matched that it is well-nigh impossible to decide for which team to vote. At least one case is on record where a single critic judge declared the result a draw. If the contest is judged at all, such an outcome is most unfortunate, for the state of mind of the debaters, for the opinions of respective partisans, and, most of all, for the reputation of the judge!

What, then, is one to do when he can put his finger on nothing important and tangible enough to incline the scale one way or the other? Professor O'Neill has suggested a device out of his own experience that has possibilities. After you have exhausted every other means of rationally differentiating between the two teams, look over the six speakers and say to yourself: "If this were a try-out debate for the choice of one team of three members and these six people were candidates for the team, which three should I take? Would it be the entire affirmative team, or only two of them?" In either case the affirmative should be awarded the decision. "Would

it be the negative team as a group or even two of them?" If Yes is the answer, then the negative should be declared the winners.

This method may or may not be scientific. One thing is certain,—drowning men grasp at straws, and this device is considerably more substantial.

(4) One final suggestion. You should always be willing to discuss the comparative strengths of the teams and the reasons for your vote, and to offer suggestions for improvement, after the debate,—provided such comment is desired by the debaters and their teachers. It is sometimes necessary to insist that such discussion on their part be in good temper. Although you should be willing to answer questions, the after-session must not be allowed to resolve itself into another debate, this time between the judge and the defeated team. A judge should never take a tongue-lashing from an irate loser or a partisan of his. Refuse to discuss at all unless good sportsmanship and common courtesy obtain.

In conclusion. The judge's task is an interesting, but not always an easy, one. Training, alertness, common-sense, good intentions—all are needed. He can never be infallible, but he must be tactfully authoritative.

VI. The Single Critic Judge And His Duties

Arguments for and against the single judge were presented in Chapter II. Because, no matter how much human fallibility may or may not interfere with his "expertness," he is always, in a definite sense, a critic, the latter term will be used in our discussion here.

As indicated in the earlier chapter, the single critic judge usually steps to the platform at the close of the debate and briefly outlines the reasons for his decision. He frequently secures heightened attention by carefully withholding the name of the successful team until the very end of his remarks! These comments before the audience should be brief and not too detailed. From ten

to fifteen minutes is long enough for the average audience. Pointed, intelligible remarks contribute the maximum to educating the audience as to why one team or the other won in this debate and as to what constitutes good contest debating in general. In these public comments the judge should try to strike a happy medium between meaningless commendation and over-censorious criticism.

When he comes to the detailed "post mortem" with the teams and coaches afterwards, however, he should not mince words. Tact, of course, he should use even here, for there is nothing to be gained by brutality, but he can be of the greatest service to both teams by being quite direct and frank in pointing out strengths and weaknesses.

Unless the judge is a most unusual individual, to give detailed criticisms he will have to keep careful and detailed notes as the debate progresses. If he is qualified to act as single judge, he does not need to be furnished with instructions, nor with ballot, for that matter, unless it is a league debate where ballots must be preserved.

Even in schools not yet educated to paying a fee when three judges are used, the single judge receives a fee for his services. Few people would assume the burden otherwise.

VII. Securing And Paying Judges

A. *Spirit*

The method of securing judges should be arranged between the schools concerned, formally by compact or league constitution, informally by conference or correspondence. It is most gratifying to note the decreasing rigidity and suspicion attending the choice of judges in recent years. It is quite common for college teams taking cross-country trips to leave the choice of judges

entirely in the hands of the local institutions they meet. Aren't they taken advantage of? Yes, now and then, but the coach who goes out after scalps by fair means or foul is becoming scarcer or growing civilized, and the loss of an occasional decision for the visiting school is more than equalized by increased cordiality of relations.

It is a truism that we tend to live up to what others expect of us. If you act as though you believe that the opposing coach is guilty until he is proved innocent, he will tend to get judges as favorable to his side as possible. Proceed on the assumption that of course he is honest, and he is less likely, to say the least, to take advantage of you. When it comes to securing judges, mutual good faith is an absolute *sine qua non*. Even with it, debate relations now and then grow a bit tense; without it what should be friendly rivalry becomes mortal combat.

At the same time, let this be noted. Better be a careful scrutinizer of judges beforehand than a poor loser afterwards. It is better to demand good judges in advance than "sob" when it is too late.

B. *Nominating Judges*

A common, and recommended, procedure is for the entertaining school to submit a list of nominees for judges to the visiting school. The visiting school strikes out such names as are not acceptable, ranks those that remain in order of preference, and returns the list. The entertaining school then secures three judges, sending out invitations in the order of preference indicated by the other school.

This in outline. Some details will make the matter clearer. The entertaining school should submit names considerably in excess of the number of judges needed. If three are to be used, ten or fifteen names are not too

many. These names should be submitted several weeks before the debate, for there may be delay in correspondence, and there may be refusals from some of the people approached. Nothing is more exasperating—and usually more inexcusable—than to have the day of a debate arrive with a board of judges incomplete.

When names are submitted, especially for a single debate, the entertaining school may well solicit nominations from the visiting school. These nominations can be incorporated with the original list when it is returned, as is shown in the illustration below. Such of these new names as are unacceptable to the entertaining school may be stricken out.

No matter which school submits names, with them should go a brief statement as to qualifications. Similarly, when names are stricken out, a statement of the reason should be sent the school submitting them.

SAMPLE NOMINATION LISTS

Original List as Submitted by Entertaining School

John Smith—Superintendent of schools, Brownsville; former debater, Albion College

Henry Swift—Coach of debate, Baylor University

R. V. Finch—Professor of history, Carroll College; experienced judge

L. W. Brown—Coach of debate, Cornell College

Miss Mary Hawkins—Coach of women's debate, Drake University

J. D. Small—Pastor First Methodist Church, Grandville; former debater, Hamline University, Minnesota; does much judging

C. M. Hodge—Speech teacher, Hastings High School; Delta Sigma Rho, University of Wisconsin

Miss Lucy Dodd—Speech teacher, Marshall High School; Delta Sigma Rho, University of Michigan

N. J. Strong—President, Rice Institute; former debate coach; accomplished public speaker

A. B. Crandall—Lawyer, Danville; experienced judge

List as Returned by Visiting School

In order of our preference. You will note that we have inserted a few new names; ignore those not acceptable.

1. Henry Swift
2. L. W. Brown
3. M. J. Horner—Attorney, Springville; Tau Kappa Alpha, Lawrence College; frequently judges
4. S. M. Fall—Superintendent of schools, Sheridan; much experience; has judged for us only once, but think him excellent.
5. N. J. Strong
6. Mary Hawkins
7. C. M. Hodge
8. Otto Green—Business manager, Mt. Union College; Pi Kappa Delta, Kansas Agricultural College
9. A. B. Crandall
10. J. D. Small
11. George Higley—Pastor Presbyterian Church, Central City; debated at Beloit College

We should rather not use Miss Dodd because we understand she is a bit immature. Professor Finch is too strongly opinionated for such a question as this. Superintendent Smith, before he went to Albion College, studied here two years and so might not be entirely unbiased.

List as Used by Entertaining School for Sending Invitations and Recording Responses

Henry Swift—O.K.
L. W. Brown—Prior engagement
M. J. Horner—O.K.
N. J. Strong—Ill
Mary Hawkins—O.K.
C. M. Hodge
Otto Green
A. B. Crandall
J. D. Small

C. Inviting Judges

As soon as your list of nominees is complete, lose no time in sending invitations. As soon as you have secured three judges, inform your opponents so that

they need have no anxiety as to last-minute difficulties. Or if some people approached cannot serve and so there is delay, let your opponents know what progress is being made. It sometimes happens that, for one reason or another, a panel of judges is exhausted before three people can be secured. In that case, correspond with the other school, by telephone if time is short, and agree on additional names. One should never go ahead and invite judges that have not been approved by the other school. No more prolific source of bad blood between schools can be found than such procedure.

In general, invitation by mail is better than by telegraph or telephone. Though slower, it is less subject to misunderstanding and has the advantage of putting things in black and white. When the telephone is used, if time permits, all arrangements made by wire should be confirmed by letter.

When inviting by letter, enclose return postage; when by telegraph, direct that the answer be sent collect.

Whether by letter or by wire, if judges are invited and accept even as long as a week in advance, send them a final brief note of reminder of date and place and hour that will reach them not more than a day or two in advance of the debate. Good judges are usually busy men and women with many engagements. This final reminder is cheap insurance against nervous prostration the night of the debate when a judge fails to appear.

In the following sample letter of invitation, attention is called to these matters: date, place, hour, subject, opponents, number of judges, remuneration, reply. If the invitation is sent some time in advance, it may be impossible to state the exact hour and place; hence the alternative form. The subject of the debate is given so that the conscientious judge who feels that he is too biased to judge fairly may decline. If the coach sends the invitation and knows the prospective judge personally, the wording may well be less formal. The various items already referred to should be mentioned, however.

Massillon, Ohio
March 30, 1929

Professor Paul Seagrave
College of Wooster
Wooster, Ohio

My dear Mr. Seagrave:

Friday night, April 19, Massillon High School and Marion High School will debate here on the proposition: "Resolved that the direct primary system of nominating candidates for public office in Ohio should be abolished." The two schools join in inviting you to act as one of three judges (single critic judge) on that occasion. The debate will be held in the auditorium of the Massillon High School at 8 o'clock. (If you can serve, definite information as to the exact place and hour of the debate will be sent you later.)

In addition to your expenses, the customary fee of $10 will be paid.

Will you kindly reply at your earliest convenience?

Very truly yours,

D. *Paying Judges*

As a matter of common decency, judges have usually been reimbursed for any expenses incurred in going to judge debates. It is only within recent years, however, that the custom has developed of paying a fee in addition to expenses, and it must be admitted that this custom is still far from universal, especially in high schools. Such being the case, it is pertinent to consider the question: Why pay?

There are three or four good reasons at least. They do not require extended treatment. The first is that the time and ability of a competent judge is worth something more than the pleasure he gets from riding a bus over muddy roads, staying all night in a small-town hotel, and getting up at an unearthly hour to catch the local train back for work the next morning, and, I might add, from feeling that he has discharged a civic duty.

The second reason for paying is that by this means busy but well qualified people can be interested in judg-

ing. As more and more schools do pay, it is becoming increasingly difficult to get competent judges gratis. Some colleges have gone so far as to adopt the rule that they will send no one out to judge unless a reasonable fee is offered.

Related to this reason is the fact that a judge will take his task more seriously and do a better job if he is paid. The criticisms offered by judges may be the most valuable part of their service. If they are paid a small fee, they can reasonably be expected to spend some time after the debate in conference with the teams.

The final reason for paying a fee is that such an arrangement puts debating on a more self-respecting plane. No high school would ask a man to referee a basketball game gratis. The coach's work, the respect accorded debating, the whole tone of the activity, look up when debate announces that it is no longer a charity affair.

Lest the case of the small high school be brought up at this point, let me hasten to say that I appreciate the difficult position in which it finds itself. Athletics is self-supporting, debate is not, and general funds that may be used are small. These are doubtless valid arguments, and yet the fact that so many small high schools do pay their judges shows that a way can be found. Often at least two judges can come together from the same town by automobile, thus reducing traveling expenses. Attention is called to the next chapter, where the matters of financing and "selling" debate are discussed.

How large should the fee be? It varies from school to school. We have just considered the case of the small high school. There are those for which three dollars is as much as ten dollars or even more for the large city school. And there is hope for the poorer schools; judges will usually show consideration and charge only what the traffic will bear.

For purposes of illustration, the schedule of rates adopted by the college with which I am connected may

be interesting. For our own intercollegiate debates we pay ten dollars and expenses when we use three judges, twenty-five dollars and expenses when a single judge serves. In sending out judges to high school debates we recommend ten dollars for single judge; five dollars for one of three judges when it is a faculty member, three dollars when it is a student debater, the difference being explained by the fact that the experience is valuable training for the student. Students not infrequently receive more, however.

In Wisconsin fifteen dollars and expenses seems to be quite commonly the fee for a single judge of high school debates.

For the single judge of intercollegiate debates the fee varies from fifteen to twenty five dollars.

To summarize this section: To secure competent debate judges, use fair play and business-like methods, including payment of a reasonable fee.

VIII. Some Additional Suggestions to Coaches.

(1) Don't forget to supply the judge with note paper, ballots, and instructions.

(2) Allow no conference of judges. A unanimous jury verdict is not necessary.

(3) Get your money's worth out of the judges. Don't be afraid to ask for criticisms and suggestions, whether your team wins or loses. Many a team has learned more in defeat than in victory.

(4) Don't "crab" the decision. Even though you are dead sure that the judges decided wrongly and are boiling inwardly, set an example to your students of good sportsmanship. Don't blow up or break down; if you do it, your proteges will do the same thing. If you do it in good spirit, there is no reason why you should not raise questions, but be sure it is in good spirit and don't drag out the post mortem. Also, see that your debaters keep their heads and hold their tongues.

(5) If a judge fails to appear, meet the other school half way in making some sort of arrangement. Perhaps one of the two who are on hand is qualified to act as single judge. In that case, the other man should, of course, receive his fee anyhow. Perhaps a local person can be secured to act as third judge. Or, again, it may be best to go on with two judges, on the understanding that if they disagree the result will be decided by lot or by conference between them or will remain a tie. Still another possibility is to make the discussion a decisionless one. Some satisfactory way out can be found if both coaches make the best of a bad situation by cooperating in absolute good faith.

(6) You will find it useful to compile a reference list of possible judges, showing their addresses and qualifications. Sometimes a standard uniform list of this sort is prepared for the use of all the members of a league. For quick reference such a list is most convenient.

There are cases on record of schools which zealously kept a card file of all judges they had ever used. These cards showed, not merely the qualifications of the respective judges, but also their records in terms of favorable and unfavorable votes for that school. Such forensic politics is on the same plane as elaborate entertainment of judges so as to secure favorable votes. Such practices, most of us hope, will soon be banished utterly. Certainly nothing of that sort is suggested here.

IX. The Audience As Judge

The theory and value of audience decisions were discussed in Chapter II. Though members of the audience are seldom, if ever, qualified to cast critic's votes, they may cast quite valid and significant legislator's votes. Let us first examine two types of ballots and then consider how audience votes may be satisfactorily tabulated.

As was pointed out in Chapter II, ballots for the audience to indicate shifts of opinion on the merits of the *question* take two general forms. One provides for marking both before and after the debate, the other for voting only at the close of the discussion.

Specimens of both types are reproduced here. The first is that used in an international debate on the principle of prohibition between Cambridge University and Western State Teachers College. The other is the interesting form used by Western Reserve University in most of their debates, even when judges also render a decision. Professor H. S. Woodward of Western Reserve is tabulating results and offers to furnish ballots to other colleges.[6]

It will be seen that the Western Reserve ballot is the more complicated. At the same time, it is more accurate in determining *shifts* of opinion and can be used for debates on any subject. The first ballot, attached to the regular debate program and perforated at the top and between its various sections, obviates the necessity of supplying pencils to the audience.

On the back of the ballot there is room for further comment and for brief criticism of individual speakers.

Ballots should be collected by ushers if a round table or open forum follows the debate. If there are sufficient tellers, the ballots can be counted very quickly and the result announced before the audience leaves. Otherwise they should be deposited in boxes in the hands of doorkeepers as the audience files out.

There is just one way of tabulating ballots of the first type. Divide them into four piles: Changed FOR, Changed AGAINST, Unchanged FOR, Unchanged AGAINST. Although the "Unchanged" ballots are interesting in getting a complete tabulation of audience sentiment, only the "Changed" ballots are significant in

[6] Cf. *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. 14:109. February, 1928.

My views have been changed FOR Prohibition	My views have been changed AGAINST Prohibition
My views remain unchanged FOR Prohibition	My views remain unchanged AGAINST Prohibition

TO THE AUDIENCE

The debaters will appreciate your interest and help if you will, *both before and after the debate,* indicate on this sheet your *personal opinion* on the *idea proposed for debate.*

As soon as the debate is finished, opportunity will be given you to question the debaters on any matters that pertain to the question.

BEFORE THE DEBATE

☐ I believe in the affirmative of the resolution to be debated.
☐ I am undecided.
☐ I believe in the negative of the resolution to be debated.

THE REASONS FOR MY OPINIONS ARE:

Date .....

Place .....

This blank is filled by a ☐ man ☐ woman, whose age is.....

AFTER THE DEBATE

I have heard the entire discussion, and now

☐ I believe more strongly in the affirmative of the resolution than I did
☐ I believe in the affirmative of the resolution.
☐ I am undecided.
☐ I believe in the negative of the resolution
☐ I believe more strongly in the negative of the resolution than I did.

THE REASONS FOR MY OPINION ARE:

determining the winner. Whichever team has the larger total wins.

There are two ways of tabulating ballots of the second type. The first, and less accurate, method is to arrange

all the ballots on the basis of the before-the-debate vote. Place them in three piles: Affirmative, Negative, Undecided, and get the total for each pile. Now go through the ballots in the same manner again, this time tabulating on the basis of the after-the-debate vote. Affirmative votes include both simple "I believe in the affirmative" and "I believe more strongly in the affirmative." Similarly with the negative. By comparison of the two sets of results the "winning" team is determined. Some illustrative figures may make this explanation clearer.

Before-the-Debate Vote		After-the-Debate Vote	
Affirmative	19		40
Negative	34		45
Undecided	61		25
		Spoiled ballots	4
	114		114

Inasmuch as the affirmative gained 21 votes to a gain of 11 votes for the negative, the affirmative team is declared the winner.

Attention is called to the checking of totals to guard against mistakes in counting. To be valid, ballots must be marked both before and after the debate. Ballots should be rejected only when the tellers are unable to determine from them the voter's purpose.

This method of counting gives only gross results as to opinions before and after the discussion. There is needed a means of determining possible shifts in the opinions of the individual hearers. The second method, outlined below, is designed to show the relative effectiveness of the two teams in securing such shifts. Examine each ballot but once. Reject all those that have not been marked *both before and after* the debate. Determine what shift, if any, is indicated on each ballot and tabulate its numerical equivalent according to the following scheme:

From Undecided to Affirmative—1 for the Affirmative
From Negative to Affirmative—2 for the Affirmative
From Affirmative to More Strongly Affirmative—1 for the Affirmative
From Negative to Undecided—1 for the Affirmative
No change—0

From Undecided to Negative—1 for the Negative
From Affirmative to Negative—2 for the Negative
From Negative to More Strongly Negative—1 for the Negative
From Affirmative to Undecided—1 for the Negative

Suppose 72 valid ballots are cast:

	For Affirmative	*For Negative*
The first ballot shows a shift from Undecided to Negative		1
The second ballot shows a shift from Negative to Undecided	1	
The third ballot shows no shift		
The fourth ballot shows no shift		
The fifth ballot shows a shift from Negative to More Strongly Negative		1
The sixth ballot shows a shift from Negative to Affirmative	2	
The seventh ballot shows a shift from Affirmative to Negative		2

Actual tabulation of the entire 72 ballots cast gives the following results:

Affirmative	*Negative*
𝍸 𝍸 𝍸 𝍸 𝍸 𝍸 \ 31	𝍸 𝍸 𝍸 𝍸 \ – 21

The affirmative wins by a *score,* not a vote in terms of number of ballots, of 31 to 21.

Is it necessary to add that both methods of tabulating may be used, with little additional expenditure of time and labor? A statement by one of the tellers or the chairman summarizing how many favored the proposed policy, how many opposed it, and how many were undecided after the debate as compared with those holding similar views before listening to the discussion is more enlightening to the audience or in the daily press than is a statement of comparative *scores.*

In the example just given, where the affirmative won by a *score* of 31 to 21, the results tabulated by the first method are these:

	Before the Debate	*After the Debate*
Affirmative	15	26
Negative	26	27
Undecided	31	19

To give some idea of the variety that may be introduced into audience ballots, four additional samples are shown.

BEFORE DEBATE	AFTER DEBATE
☐ I favor a child labor amendment	☐ I favor a child labor amendment
☐ I oppose a child labor amendment	☐ I oppose a child labor amendment
☐ I am undecided	☐ I am undecided

The foregoing ballot was attached by perforations at the bottom of the printed program. Detached and handed in as a whole, it was used first to tabulate individual shifts. Then the two halves were separated for securing gross before-and-after results.

I am more favorable to Mussolini's principles than I was before the debate.	I am less favorable to Mussolini's principles than I was before the debate.

This is about as simple a form as can be devised.

BALLOT

Each person at the close of the debate will please deposit at the door two ballots, one indicating his own position, the other showing the effect of to-night's discussion.

I believe in pacifism	I am opposed to pacifism	I am undecided

I am more favorable to pacifism than I was before the debate.	I am less favorable to pacifism than I was before the debate.

The proposition for the debate at which this ballot, printed at the end of the program, was used, was: "Resolved, that the only effective attitude toward war is an uncompromising pacifism." Those in charge of the debate thought that it might be significant to get an audience poll on pacifism as such as well as a tabulation of opinion shifts.

If man, tear off this corner — My views have shifted toward approving women in political and professional life.	My views have shifted toward deploring women in political and professional life. — If man, tear off this corner
If man, tear off this corner — My views remain favorable to women in political and professional life.	My views remain opposed to women in political and professional life. — If man, tear off this corner

This peculiar form was employed in another international debate, on the proposition: "Resolved, that the entry of women into political and professional life is to be deplored." The device of the perforated corners made possible separate tabulation of men's and women's ballots,—with some interesting results!

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS SUGGESTIONS FOR COACHES[1]

I. Management Of Debate
II. Selling Debate
    A. Publicity
    B. Incentives for Debaters
        1. An Interesting Question
        2. An Attractive Schedule
        3. Academic Credit
        4. Awards
        5. Honorary Societies
III. Financing Debate
    A. Paid Admissions
    B. Support from School Funds
    C. Student Fees
    D. Raising of Money by Special Means
IV. An Intramural Program
V. Educating Executives
VI. Eligibility
VII. Traveling
    A. Which Team Travels?
    B. Who Should Go on a Trip?
    C. Who Pays Traveling Expenses?
VIII. A Reception For Guests
IX. Two Practical Questions
    A. How Many Debates Should Be Held on One Question?
    B. What Percentage of Its Debates Should a School Win?
X. Scouting
XI. Handling Correspondence
XII. The Filing Habit
XIII. Keeping Calm

[1] Cf. Appendices V, VI and VII.

I. Management Of Debate

Whether in high school or college, the debate director seldom has the time and energy to look after everything himself. On the other hand, he may add to his troubles by letting a high school principal go ahead and make all arrangements without consulting him. Most important of all, he should share his duties, if only to encourage student assistance. Debating should be kept as much a genuine, spontaneous student activity as possible. The wise director saves himself work and does not "manage" more than necessary, just as he does not "coach" more than is necessary.

The usual situation in college calls for some sort of official student board to preside over the destinies of debate, often in conjunction with oratory and other intercollegiate speech work. Such plan of organization can often be modified and adopted in high school.

The executive officer of a forensic board is usually an elected or appointed Debate Manager. If the debate program is rather ambitious, there may be separate managers for men's and women's debating. The manager's duties are numerous and varied. To him may be turned over the scheduling of debates, signing of contracts, control of finances, handling of publicity, the making of such detailed arrangements for each debate as meeting the visiting team, paying judges, distributing programs, collecting ballots.

If the debate program is heavy, it is obvious that under such conditions the manager will need an assistant, preferably an underclassman who, if competent, can go on with the work another year.

Indeed, it is well to enlist the services of numerous students in securing publicity and handling various other details. The more students actively at work, the greater the general student support for debating.

Most faculty debate directors will agree, however, that it is not wise to leave everything to the student manager,

even though highly capable. There should be conference with the coach before important decisions are made. Otherwise, in saving yourself bother today you run the risk of reaping it several fold tomorrow, when a contract is bungled or the budget overrun.

The debate manager may or may not be a member of the varsity squad. A manager elected by the student body may be much more interested in social affairs than in debating, whereas an appointed squad member is pretty sure to have interest in a successful debate season. The strongest objection to the squad member is that he is apt to be too busy to be either a good debater or a good manager, to say nothing of being even a passing student. All things considered, a competent, interested man or woman outside the squad is apt to make quite as good a manager as a squad member.

If awards or credit are given your debaters, consider whether some sort of tangible recognition should not be given the manager.

A sample constitution for a Forensic Board is given in Appendix VIII.

II. Selling Debate

I should like to discuss this topic under two headings: (1) Publicity to get the audience; (2) Incentives to get the debaters.

In his famous *Lectures on Rhetoric and Oratory* at Harvard University in 1809, John Quincy Adams made this statement: "There is always a certain correspondence and proportion between the estimation in which an art is held and the effect which it produces." If this is true, and most of us will agree that it is, then it behooves the director of debate to have the "art," or activity, which he directs stand in as high popular estimation as possible. If the best students in school go out for debate, debating will improve and will attract better audiences. If debate

receives much publicity and large crowds attend, more and better students will be encouraged to participate. The effect is reciprocal.

A. *Publicity*[2]

Because debate does not have the spectacular appeal of the athletic contest, many directors underestimate the possibilities for publicity. Advertising is not only legitimate; it is positively essential if debate is to be sold to students and the public. If the most desirable students are to participate in forensics, they must realize its advantages in the way of personal development and social recognition. If the general body of students, who do not themselves debate, are to attend contests, they must be sold the idea that such contests are too interesting and important school affairs to be missed. If outsiders are to be attracted, whether as special audiences or even as ready-made audiences such as clubs, they must sense that the question is a timely one and the discussion will be live and interesting. Hence, adequate publicity for his product, when he knows that it is good, should concern every debate director.

However, so many are the concerns of the average director that he will often find it desirable to delegate publicity to a special student manager, who is held responsible for all debate publicity. Such centralization of responsibility makes it easier for the director to supervise and gives the student manager a sense of responsibility and a chance to work out a consistent, unified policy for the season. It may be that the regular debate manager can take over publicity work as part of his duties; it may be better to have a separate publicity manager, who can give undivided attention to that phase of forensics.

[2] For a more detailed discussion, from which some of the ideas advanced here are taken, see "Can We Revive Interest in Intercollegiate Debates?" by Wilbur E. Gilman of the University of Missouri, in the *Quarterly Journal of Speech* for November, 1928.

Whoever it is that has charge of publicity, he or she should have, if possible, some experience in news writing and should possess enthusiasm, persistence, and the ability to get along with people.

It would be idle to enumerate all the methods of advertising that may be employed, for every ingenious coach and student manager will devise new ones that fit local needs. However, these four advertising media may be mentioned: the news story, the picture, the poster, the special invitation.

News stories of various sorts and lengths should be constantly employed throughout the season. Indeed, they should appear in the school paper before try-outs are held, telling students about the prospective schedule, informing them of the forensic record of the local institution, describing new types of debating, recounting the achievements of prominent alumni who debated as students, *et cetera*. Naturally, prior to the holding of try-outs, specific information as to their details should be given. During the season other articles should appear regularly. It is necessary to avoid repetition, but all publicity should not be held back until the last moment before an important debate. Forensic activities, in general and in particular, should be kept before readers of the school paper in every issue after the season gets under way. Subjects that may well be featured are the schedule, traditional rivalries, the squad (its size, personnel, experience of the members), the question and where else it is being used, debate organizations of which the local school is a member, visiting teams and their qualifications, local teams that will meet them, details of each debate (time, place, chairman, judging arrangements), results of contests.

An editorial in the school or college paper may now and then be used in support of news stories. Not infrequently an editorial writer will ask the forensic publicity manager to write such editorials.

In addition to the school paper, the publicity manager can usually secure space in the local city paper, either for stories written by himself for which he receives pay, or for data supplied by telephone. News stories in general newspapers are, of course, one of the best ways of reaching the outside public, and, at the same time, publicity secured there tends to elevate debating in the eyes of the student body.

The attention given news stories is greatly increased by the use of *pictures*. They may profitably be used in both school and city papers more extensively than they usually are. The squad, local teams for particular debates, visiting teams, all of these make good subjects for pictures. Metropolitan dailies will often use the picture of a team that is making an extended tour. On the other hand, a team that is preparing to take such a trip should have mats sent ahead to all the schools they will meet. These mats may be secured at slight expense and are welcomed by the various local college papers.

The third publicity device is *posters*. Whether printed or hand lettered, they should be designed to attract attention to the question, interesting aspects of the discussion, and similar features rather than to debate as such. There are possibilities of variety in a set of hand-made posters that printed ones lack, but of course in large numbers printed placards are cheaper. Bright colors and novel designs attract attention, as does a *series* of posters that builds up suspense until just before the date of the contest.

Besides employing the methods already outlined, it is distinctly worth while to carry advertising even more directly to the public by means of *special invitations*. These invitations may take the form of talks or personal letters. Let various members of the squad speak briefly of an approaching debate at different luncheon, civic, and women's clubs; or, if that does not seem feasible, a brief letter of invitation may be sent to the secretary. The

making of an impelling three minute announcement-invitation is good experience for the student, and the talk usually receives a favorable hearing. Needless to say, the privilege of making such announcements should not be abused, by speakers running over time limits or by the publicity manager's requesting it for more than one or two outstanding debates during the year.

Within the school, also, such talks may bear good fruit before a general assembly, before clubs, and in classes concerned with the problem being discussed. In these cases an announcement by a student is frequently more effective than one made by an instructor.

A somewhat different form of publicity may be secured through the school annual. Too frequently debating activities get but a scant page or two. A good debate program wins space; space helps to raise forensics in the eyes of the student body.

That emphasis on publicity does bring results in the high school field has been demonstrated in the state of Michigan, where some two hundred and fifty high schools are members of the state debate league. Of recent years a vast amount of publicity has gone out to high schools and local newspapers all over the state, from the office of the state manager, who is a member of the department of speech at the University of Michigan. At least in some measure because of this publicity, in which the Detroit *Free Press* has taken a leading part, interest in the long series of debates culminating in a state championship contest at Ann Arbor, has grown until attendance at the final debate taxes the capacity of a great auditorium seating four thousand people. In the individual schools, as well, participation in forensic work has become increasingly popular, and classroom instruction in speech has been stimulated.

A useful device for increasing student attendance is to secure the cooperation of faculty colleagues who teach classes to whom the subject for debate is of interest. A

discussion of the development of hydro-electric power, for example, should attract students not merely from social science classes, but from geography classes as well, and teachers of the various related courses are usually glad to urge their classes to attend.

Another method of securing an audience is the coercive method—requiring classes to go, or holding a debate before an assembly at which attendance is compulsory. There are thoroughly valid arguments for this method, but it should not be used too often. If a debate is held in assembly, it should usually be shortened by reducing the number of speakers or the length of speeches or perhaps by having only one rebuttal speech. A long and boring debate may prejudice more people against debating than any amount of favorable publicity can hope to win to its support.

A final way, and not necessarily one of last resort either, is to go to more or less ready-made audiences. The off-campus debate before clubs and church gatherings is discussed in Chapter II.

B. *Incentives for Debaters*[3]

Argue as we will that boys and girls, men and women, should debate for the pleasure and value they get from it, the fact remains that debate is work and requires time and that today with the multiplicity of student activities, many good students either cannot or will not come out unless there are additional incentives. Facing that fact, our task is to decide what incentives may properly be used. Those discussed here are commonly used in colleges and high schools, and, in proper degree, are both appropriate and legitimate.

1. An Interesting Question

In choosing questions, greater attention should be given to what students are interested in. If they are not

[3] Cf. *Selecting the Squad*, Ch. III.

actually consulted, at least the coach should try to put himself in their place.

2. An Attractive Schedule

Information that strong apponents are to be met calls forth more of a combative response. When you issue your call for candidates, give them some idea of what schools will be met during the year.

Although trips of much length are out of place in high school because of expense and loss of time from studies, the prospect of a trip through two or three states to meet opposing colleges may appeal to the college man or woman. Long trips extending over several weeks even for college students are attacked on various grounds. If such trips are taken, it should be only at rare intervals, for despite the advertising they give the college and the friendly relations they establish, only a small number of people can go, and then at definite loss to their class work.

3. Academic Credit

There is wide variation among high schools and colleges concerning credit for debating. An investigation for the National Association of Teachers of Speech in 1925 disclosed that out of one hundred and forty-four colleges and universities scattered all over the country fifty gave credit for intercollegiate debate.[4] The results of the Mid-West Debate Conference questionnaire given in Appendix VI show forty-five out of fifty-six institutions granting such credit.

At least in the west and middle west it is probably safe to say that a majority of the high schools that have interscholastic debating give credit for participation in it, and the number is growing.

This granting of credit may be justified on several grounds. To be sure, debate may be considered an ex-

[4] W. P. Sandford. A Recent Debate Questionnaire. *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education.* 12:181. April, 1926.

tra-curricular activity, but rightly handled, squad work is conducted systematically along the lines of regular class work. So conducted, every member on the squad must do conscientious work and spend much time in reading and in meetings. Many a likely prospective debater cannot give so much time in addition to a regular line-up of studies. If, however, he is allowed credit for debating, he can drop an elective and substitute debate for it. And finally, the value of the study itself is argument enough to warrant the granting of academic credit. Ask the debater in what course he has gained the most information, the most thorough, critical knowledge of a subject. The chances are more than even that he will say Debate. Naturally, the question must be a substantial one to yield such return.[5]

If you ask how much credit and how often and under what heading, I do not attempt a dogmatic answer. As shown by the surveys of the National Association of Teachers of Speech and the Mid-West Debate Conference, colleges vary from nothing to three semester hours. Probably a majority of the colleges and high schools that grant credit, allow it more than once if an individual is on the squad more than one year; this in part because questions differ from year to year.

My own feeling is that, whether in college or high school, participation in debate should receive credit equivlent to that yielded by the standard academic course in the institution. In other words, if most of the courses in the college are three-hour courses, debate should yield three semester hours, though frequently it actually yields two. On the other hand, if a man debates more than two years, the work is considerably easier for him because of his earlier practice. For this reason he may well receive less credit for work after his second year.

In the high school, where four so-called units constitute a year's work, debate, which usually extends over

[5] Cf. *Choosing the Question*, Ch. III.

a semester, commonly receives one-half unit credit and may be repeated. The credit may be given for Debate as such or for Speech or for English. Often students are allowed to drop an English class while working on the squad.

Each high school must work out its own problem, which includes that of college entrance credit. Increasingly colleges and universities are giving entrance credit for speech as such, so that debate may be a permissible elective. The important thing for the coach to do is to see that some sort of credit is allowed, provided he believes in it, and then see that his people work hard enough to earn it.

If credit is allowed at all, it is now pretty generally agreed that it should apply to all on the squad, not merely to those who shine in public performance. All the squad members do the work, and sometimes it is the inexperienced boy or girl who does not quite reach the place where he can represent the school, who does the most—for himself and for the development of the teams' cases. To indicate the relative worth of the work done, as in any class, one may well use grades or a sliding scale of credit in terms of units or hours.

4. Awards

Whereas credit should be allowed for work done on the squad and so to all members, provided they earn it, awards should be given as recognition for representing the school in interscholastic competition and so only to those who have actually debated. Not intrinsic value, but their significance, is what makes awards mean anything. Debaters should have them in their own right and especially so when it is considered that outside of athletics and, lately, music, debating and other speaking contests are practically the only forms of interscholastic and intercollegiate competition. High schools commonly present awards in the form of numerals and sweaters to athletes;

often no such recognition goes to the debaters. As coach you can do much to change this situation and help restore the balance between athletic and forensic competition.

Debate awards as given in college and high schools are varied—medals, pins, keys, banners, numerals, or cups. Each school must decide for itself what seems best. These three requisites are suggested: awards should be significant of the activity for participation in which they are awarded, they should be commensurate with the value of the activity, and they should be usable. They should not be "cheap" and at the same time they must not be over-expensive. By "usable" is not meant the giving of cartwheel medals that are carefully carried home to be deposited in the top bureau drawer never to see the light of day again. Far better a watch medallion or a pin that can be worn. The athletic flaunts his sweater in the eyes of all across the campus or the schoolroom. Is it too much to ask that the debater shall wear an inconspicuous pin or medallion?

To save the foolish expense of presenting an identical award each year to the man who debates more than once, and at the same time to indicate difference in experience and in service to the school, an award that admits of gradation is often used. One of the neatest high school awards that has ever come to my notice was a gold pin to which was attached, by a tiny gold chain, a safety guard in the form of crossed gavels. The pin itself was triangular, bearing in its center the school seal and along the edges the three words Carson-High-Debate. The corners were set with jewels as the debater participated additional years. For the first year, the plain gold pin with guard was given; for the second year a pearl was added; for the third year a ruby; and in the rare case of a fourth year debater, a diamond chip filled the third corner. There was a definite incentive for the under class boy or girl who received a plain gold pin to continue debating and so have his pin jeweled. Some slight expense

was entailed for the original die, but after that expense was surprisingly small. Various insignia jewelry houses are glad to submit designs and prices for such work.

In some instances where state leagues flourish, there is a tendency to use uniform inexpensive awards, designed by the league and purchased by the individual schools.

Awards should be presented publicly. They are meant to be a tangible recognition of the school's appreciation. Then don't have such recognition extended as though it were a deep, dark secret. Reticence and modesty are virtues, but don't think that you will ever "sell" debate without acting as though you believed in your own wares. Awards may well be presented in a public assembly or at some sort of recognition banquet. It may be that the banquet can be combined with one for others in the student body who should be honored, for music, for scholarship, for athletics other than football, which often has its own function. It may be that a separate banquet is best. But who will say that it is a success if only a handful besides the coach and the squad are there? Sell tickets as well as debate, and sell to all the students and all the teachers!

5. Honorary Societies

Academic credit to all squad members, school awards to those who actually debate against other institutions. Is there need or place for anything more? Apparently there is, if we may judge from the development of honorary fraternities and societies designed to promote debate and oratory. In the college field there are at least three: Delta Sigma Rho, Pi Kappa Delta, and Tau Kappa Alpha, each having chapters in all sections of the country. Both men and women are eligible to membership. They are honorary rather than social organizations, and membership is a privilege and honor to be won by definite attainments. The local chapters may set standards in addition to those established by the national organizations and so

make membership an even more powerful incentive for outstanding performance.

In 1925, under the auspices of Ripon College of Wisconsin, was organized the National Forensic League, a high school honor society for those participating in interscholastic public speaking. Quoting from a prospectus of the organization, "the purpose of the National Forensic League is to stimulate interest in debate and oratory by offering definite and suitable recognition for successful participation in those activities. Just as the athlete receives the coveted school letter for his efforts, so the debater is to receive a national honor key for his work. Its next purpose is to induce more students to enter these worth-while activities [by offering a tangible reward to work for]. . . Its further purpose is to keep active the interest of the students who have taken part in debate and oratory and to urge them on to greater attainments [by means of awards that show progressive attainments]."

This high school society is non-secret and expenses have been kept very low. Already the membership list includes about three hundred chapters from coast to coast. The national secretary is Professor Bruno E. Jacob of Ripon College, Ripon, Wisconsin.

Whether such an organization as the National Forensic League for high schools is desirable and appropriate or whether it is merely an aping of college fraternities and so puts a false emphasis on forensic endeavor the individual school must decide. Its development is undeniably interesting.

The insignia of honorary societies may be presented as school awards, or they may be purchased at the individual's own expense. To illustrate an award system that provides for the incentive of graduated awards and eliminates duplication of school awards and fraternity insignia, there is presented here the detailed system used by a certain mid-west college. Awards for men and women are identical except that women may have a pin attach-

ment for fraternity keys. To be eligible to election in the fraternity one must be of at least sophomore standing and must have participated in at least three intercollegiate speech contests, with the exception of seniors, who may be considered on the basis of two such contests.

First Year

(1) If Freshman or otherwise ineligible to Tau Kappa Alpha—specially designed wall banner in school colors and seal bearing year and the words "Varsity Debate."

(2) If upperclassman who has been in the necessary number of contests—the Tau Kappa Alpha key, purchased from college funds.

Second Year

(1) If still ineligible to Tau Kappa Alpha—a specially designed silver pin.

(2) If eligible to Tau Kappa Alpha—key.

(3) If already a member of Tau Kappa Alpha—banner or silver pin.

Third Year

(1) If eligible to Tau Kappa Alpha—key.

(2) If already a member of Tau Kappa Alpha—specially designed gold pin.

Fourth Year

Pearl-set gold pin.

The Forensic Board is empowered to take special action in exceptional cases.

III. Financing Debate[6]

Seldom is debate self-supporting. Such a condition is not to be wondered at nor particularly to be deplored. Debate is not spectacular like football or basketball. There are numerous counter-attractions in school and out.

[6] Cf. Appendix VI.

Many schools no longer charge admission, for they have found that they increase attendance by throwing the discussion open to the public. A debate on a live public question is a public service, and any means of attracting more hearers should be encouraged. On the other hand, it is frequently pointed out that people appreciate a thing more if they pay for it. The problem of determining just what the traffic will successfully bear is a difficult one.

The various methods of financing debate are four. They may be used alone or in combination.

A. *Paid Admissions*

If this method discourages attendance, it defeats its own purpose. Otherwise it is eminently logical and business-like. Frequently where admission is charged, the proceeds are supplemented from other sources. Various devices may be employed to increase revenues. The best is to present such good debating that many people wish to hear it. An interesting one used by a certain Wisconsin high school is to stage a dance after the debate and give free admission to the dance to those who hold debate tickets.

B. *Support from School Funds*

This method makes it possible to throw the doors open to everyone who may be interested. Not infrequently some of the profits made on athletic contests are used to help out the less spectacular but no less valuable forensic competitions. An objection to school-fund support is that administrative subsidy, unless it is wisely administered, does not make for student support.

C. *Student Fees*

There may be a specific forensic fee or a general student-activity fee that each student pays for the semester

or the year. If it is a general fee, a more or less fixed sum is devoted to debate. By payment of the fee every student is entitled to attend any or all of the home debates. This method reduces uncertainty, makes it possible for the coach to adjust the size of his schedule to the amount of his resources, usually increases the money available for forensics, and makes for increased student interest and support.

D. *Raising of Money by Special Means*

The small high school is undoubtedly at a disadvantage in financing a debate program as compared with the large school. All three of the previous methods may be, in whole or in part, unfeasible. What to do? Through the literary or debating society or the dramatic club or some other interested group or the school as a whole, put on a benefit entertainment, promote a lyceum course, produce a play. These are merely suggestions, applicable wherever funds are lacking, whether in small or large high schools. Often the debate coach and the dramatic teacher, who are frequently the same person, can work together during the year so that part of the money made on plays can be used for financing debate.

The teacher who wants to see debate introduced in a high school that thinks it cannot afford it or who feels that his program should be expanded should never give up in despair. Where there's a will, there's a way, at least one of the four just outlined.

IV. An Intramural Program

Although major emphasis in this book has been placed on contest debating between different institutions, there has been a concurrent emphasis on training for the many. A vital intramural forensic program is essential if the maximum interest and participation is to be secured for interscholastic debating. But more important than that,

a vital intramural program is needed as an end in itself, to give many students the benefits that come from debate and discussion.

Promote a series of debates between various clubs in the high school, between classes, between "home" rooms if you are in a large high school so organized. These inter-group contests should follow numerous debates within the groups in which as many students as possible take part. There will be more zest in the intramural competition if the possession of a trophy is the goal. Such a trophy, usually in the form of a cup, should be inscribed with the winning group's name and remain on display to be competed for the following year. A local newspaper or business men's club or public spirited individual can often be interested in donating the trophy. Or some student organization in the school may offer it, or funds be secured in one of the ways discussed for financing the interscholastic program.

A more permanent, though less inclusive, means of promoting student interest is the literary or debating society.[7] Because of a multiplicity of other activities, these organizations are not so common as they once were, but they will always have a place to fill, and in many schools, they are filling it vigorously and enthusiastically today.[8] Where debating societies are flourishing, you will find it is, first, because they have varied programs of debates, discussions, parliamentary procedure, mock trials, extempore speeches; second, because they accept as members only those who are really interested in their activities; and third, because they have wise but not domineering faculty direction.

The debating society can be of direct service to interscholastic debating in a variety of ways. From its number often come several members of the squad. Officially and unofficially its members can help get students to try out for the schools teams. Upon it should be placed part,

[7] For a sample constitution of such a society see Appendix IX.

[8] Cf. Ruth E. Huston. The Modern High School Debating Society *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education.* 11:135-9. April, 1925.

if not all, of the responsibility for advertising school debates, holding informal receptions for visiting and home teams before or after debates, staging "pep" meetings, organizing rooting delegations to accompany the team away from home. Such motivated activity is an excellent means of vitalizing the club's existence.

As coach, you will usually be advisor to the literary society. Your position is a strategic one, for good or ill. The students need direction but not domination. Lead, do not drive.

V. Educating Executives

Of all the groups to whom debate must be sold, school administrators are perhaps the most difficult. Too often a superintendent or principal says, "Oh, yes, I am in favor of our school's debating, provided: . . . " And then you find out that it must not cost anything to speak of, that students must be very sure not to neglect their other studies, that you may do it in your spare time. It is your job to show that superintendent or principal that if debating is worth doing at all, it is worth doing well; that it is quite unfair to ask you to handle debating in addition to a full teaching load; that, so far as the schedule will permit, there should be time allowed for team meetings and individual conferences; that provision must be made for adequate financial support.

And, finally, educate him on winning and losing. He should not be allowed to forget for a moment that debate is an educational enterprise and that you do not propose to sacrifice unduly educational ends to the gaining of judges' decisions. Such a position on your part need not give him the impression that you lack confidence in yourself or are afraid to give your best efforts to win debates.

VI. Eligibility

One of the surest ways to secure the support and cooperation of your fellow teachers is to be, not only

willing, but anxious to abide by scholastic eligibility standards. In high school leagues,[9] as in athletic leagues, certain standards are usually set up, but even without such standards it is well to make sure that your debaters are maintaining a satisfactory average in their other courses. So far as native ability is concerned, those who make the debate squad are seldom really poor students, but it is easy to let studies slide in the excitement and pressure of debate preparation. It is the director's job to see that such lapses do not occur for very long periods and that students get a sane perspective of debate in relation to their whole school program as well as to health, outside work, and other extra-curricular activities. He should not be guilty himself of expecting the impossible and then trying to exact it.

Although freshmen often make the squad, it is seldom that they show sufficient maturity to take part in an interscholastic debate. Of those who do, more than one has had his future value at least temporarily impaired by getting too exalted an estimation of his own abilities. To put freshman on the *squad*, however, has several arguments in its favor. You thereby secure their interest in debating early, before other activities take their time and attention. In the second place, you train them for actual debaters later. The boy or girl who waits until the senior year to come out is just getting the rough edges knocked off when he graduates.

VII. Traveling

Certain questions concerned with the traveling of debate teams are often asked.

A. *Which Team Travels*

Theoretically, the negative should travel. The affirmative should stay at home, so that the alleged advantage of speaking on its own platform may offset the disadvantage of the burden of proof. This was the old idea in the mak-

[9] Cf. Appendix XI.

ing of schedules, but today it is honored in the breach quite as often as in the observance. Other considerations enter. The schedule of home debates needs to be balanced so that the home audience can hear both sides of a question defended by its representatives. In a league it is often definitely provided that from round to round the side upheld by the home team shall shift.

B. *Who Should Go On A Trip?*

If physically and financially possible, take more than just the three team members. It is unsafe to go without an alternate to step in, in case one of the regular speakers cannot take part. Furthermore, should not the privilege and enjoyment of a trip be passed around to as many members of the squad as is consistent with the state of the exchequer?

You will find it a wise expenditure of effort and money, especially early in the season, to arrange for the whole squad to accompany the team, provided the debate is not too distant. You will be surprised to find how little it costs to take a large group by automobiles, the use of which can often be secured gratis. The presence of a good group of rooters makes your team debate better, and there is great value in your squad members' hearing numerous debates.

For team traveling, it should be arranged, in line with what has already been said as to the negative's not always traveling, for both affirmative and negative groups to take the trips. If the debater manager does not get a trip as an active debater, he can be given some compensation for his services by including him for a trip.

Although in college teams sometimes travel without a faculty member's accompanying them, in high school either the coach or another teacher should always go with the team. If the coach is a man, and a girl is on the team, it may be best to have a woman teacher go as well as the coach.

C. *Who Pays Traveling Expenses?*

The usual arrangement is for each team to pay its own expenses and for the entertaining school to pay local expenses. Deviation from this general rule frequently occurs, however. In high school leagues all expenses are sometimes prorated. The obvious argument for having a school pay its own team's traveling expenses is that the team will tend to be more economical than if spending an opponent's money.

Among colleges, where long cross-country trips extending over several days or weeks are frequently taken, it has been the usual custom for entertaining schools to pay a certain cash honorarium. This is naturally the case with the visits of foreign teams. Of late there has developed considerable opposition to the payment of cash guarantees to visiting teams, and it is becoming an increasingly common arrangement for only local entertainment to be furnished. The entertaining college may, in turn, take a trip in a year or two and in the course of it may meet their present visitors. Each school may as well pay its own expenses as receive fifty dollars this year and pay fifty dollars next. Neither are American colleges so liberal in their payments to foreign teams of late, as there seems to be considerable evidence that they, or their agents, have been asking larger sums than are necessary to defray reasonable expenses.

VIII. A Reception For Guests

Many schools hold an informal reception of some sort before or after the debate, at which members of the visiting and home teams meet in a social way. Judges, coaches, interested teachers, and students are also welcome. Such an informal get-together, along with a good cup of cocoa and a sandwich, makes for friendship and good feeling and is to be encouraged. As mentioned elsewhere, arranging for the reception is an excellent project for the debating society or honorary forensic group.

If judges are used, the reception may be a bit more enjoyable if held before the contest, though such an arrangement is not often feasible. If your team is defeated, of course you won't let the members stand about and be kill-joys at the reception. "A merry heart [even though simulated] doeth good like a medicine."

Even when a reception is not held, there is always the possibility of going down to the corner drug store and having some "eats" together. Thus may the sting be removed from defeat and the discovery made that opponents aren't such a bad sort after all.

IX. Two Practical Questions

A. *How Many Debates Should Be Held on One Question?*

Some colleges use only one or two questions and debate them only two or three times. Others carry through a long schedule on the same small range of questions. Still others use numerous questions for the season.

The use of only one or two questions makes possible their very intensive study and in some ways is easier for the squad. Even if several questions are used, the squad can be so split that no member works on all of them. Too great specialization may, of course, deaden interest. For the director, who needs to know something about a question to be an intelligent critic of what his students do, the small number of questions is undoubtedly easier.

Audiences, as well as debaters, must be considered, however. A home audience can hardly be expected to get wildly enthusiastic after hearing the same question discussed several times. Although this difficulty may be met, at least in part, by taking debates to audiences outside the school, it must be admitted that variety in question, as well as in debating forms, adds to the interest.

High schools that are members of leagues can always go outside the league for other questions and other opponents. How much variety of question should be used is

a matter that must be decided in view of available time, of the character of the squad, and of the nature of its schedule.

One final point needs to be made, in direct answer to the question raised at the beginning of this section. There should be more than one debate on a question, if returns are to be received proportionate to the time and labor expended in getting ready. A team learns by actually debating, and it is disheartening not to have a chance to profit in another contest by the mistakes made in the first one. Just as there can be too many debates on a question, so there can be too few.

B. *What Percentage of Its Debates Should a School Win?*

Despite the fact that numerous schools, both colleges and high schools, boast records of almost continuous victories over a period of years, is it not true that, by the law of averages, provided it is meeting opponents in its own class, a school should win only about half of its contests? To be sure, a higher percentage of victories is to be welcomed and honestly striven for, but it need not be a mark of disgrace to win only half of one's contests. In this connection, it is interesting to note that at least one of the national forensic fraternities looks with considerable suspicion on the record of a college petitioning for a chapter that shows a uniformly large number of victories year after year. It proceeds on the assumption that such a record may, though not necessarily, indicate unduly weak opponents or questionable methods.

Again let it be emphasized: give the maximum number of people a chance to participate without producing disaster and disgusting your audiences with markedly poor debating. You will see on referring to the constitution of the Iowa High School Debating League in Appendix XI that that organization, to the end of insuring wider participation, forbids any speaker from

appearing on both sides of a question in the same series of debates. Though necesarily arbitrary, this ruling aims in the right direction.

X. Scouting

Deliberately to send a reporter to a debate in which a team participates that you expect to meet later can hardly be defended as an ethical practice. However, when numerous debates are being held on the same question in a certain district, it is almost inevitable that leaks occur. Through newspaper accounts, chance conversation, and various other channels one team learns more or less of what other teams say. As a matter of fact, after a round or two of debates have occurred, there are not so many new and startling ideas to be stolen as one might suppose.

Once again we come back to the matter of good faith. There is a difference in deliberately sending a scout and in going to hear a debate with the approval of the two teams participating. Often the presence of a visiting team is welcomed. The dishonest coach and the dishonest school can only indifferently be prevented from dishonest practices. It is your privilege to set high standards of scrupulous honesty when scouting is involved.

XI. Handling Correspondence

More than one debate manager and faculty director have got into difficulties because they were not systematic and careful in the handling of correspondence. If you have a student manager who is to write the letters, you may find it desirable to check up a bit to see that he gets the hang of it. Many an apparently capable college student cannot write a clear, courteous letter that takes care of all essentials that should be considered.

No matter who is in charge of correspondence, the coach should see that letters are answered promptly. If

on some matter a final decision cannot be made immediately, at least send a preliminary answer. Delay in correspondence is most irritating.

Systematic filing of all letters received, together with carbon copies of answers, is simply business-like procedure. Even of apparently unimportant letters carbon copies should be made. A complete file of both sides of all correspondence is constantly needed for reference.

XII. The Filing Habit

Not merely letters, but various kinds of material in connection with your work, may profitably be filed.

You will find it a good practice to require all squad members to file one or two copies, preferably typewritten, of their speches. If necessary, credit can be withheld until they are in your hands. Thus there grows from year to year a manuscript library of the debates on various interesting public questions. Such speeches often are very convenient to refer to later, and their filing attaches an importance to them that dignifies the student's work on the debate squad.

Pamphlets and printed material, other than books deposited in the library, should be filed away in some orderly fashion. If possible, have the library take care of all of it.

You will also find it interesting and useful to file press clippings, pictures of the squad, copies of the printed programs used, of banquet programs, and other miscellaneous material which at the time seems quite insignificant. Next year when you are ready to have programs printed or wish to verify a date, you will be able to find what you need.

XIII. Keeping Calm

And this is my last preachment, although I have not meant to "preach," merely to suggest. For the student,

green or experienced, debating is a nervous strain. The wise teacher will not make it harder for him by letting himself get unduly excited when a case is in poor shape, when a speaker goes to pieces in the last practice debate, or when an important decision is at stake. He will keep his head, and his poise will communicate itself to his debaters.

And now, as you finish this chapter, it is suggested that you reread what was said as to the characteristics of the ideal coach under "How Much Should the Coach Do" in Chapter III.

CHAPTER IX

INTERCOLLEGIATE AND INTERSCHOLASTIC FORENSIC ORGANIZATION

I. The Conference
II. The League
III. The Triangular Debate
IV. The Dual Debate
V. The Single Debate

Of types of inter-school debate organizations there are several. Their structure and management may be loose or rigid. Especially in colleges the tendency seems to be away from hard and fast provisions in the form of written contracts in favor of making arrangements as to judging and similar matters by ordinary correspondence. This is in line with the growth away from the idea that an opposing coach will do you dirt if he can and so his possible course of action must be controlled by rigid black and white provisions in a signed contract.

At the same time, from the standpoint of definiteness and conservation of time, there are undoubted advantages in a more or less definite written understanding. Especially is this true for relationships in which more than two schools are concerned, and even when there are only two it is a piece-meal method to arrange everything by letter-writing.

The common types of organizations or relationships are conferences, leagues, triangular debates, dual debates, and single debates. In the following pages these types are briefly discussed and illustrative sections from written agreements are quoted.

I. The Conference

The conference may be in the nature of a clearing house for ideas, or it may be a league under another name.

The Mid-West Debate Conference illustrates the first form. It is a very loose organization with a fluctuating membership of about thirty colleges in half a dozen middle western states. On the last Saturday of September the coaches from these colleges meet in Chicago and, by the method outlined under "Choosing the Question" in Chapter III, choose official debate questions for men and for women for the ensuing year. They also discuss general debate problems and policies and elect officers. The member colleges are not obligated to use the questions chosen nor is a schedule of debates drawn up, except privately between individual colleges.

II. The League[1]

The state league is common among both colleges and high schools, although details of organization and procedure differ widely. Many college leagues have abandoned so-called championship debating; high schools will probably always have greater need of such an incentive.

The administration of high school leagues is in various hands in different states—the state university department of speech, the university extension division, private colleges, high school principals.

A study of the specimen constitutions given in Appendix XI will disclose interesting differences along various lines. The state college debate league usually provides for a meeting of debate coaches or managers or both to decide on a question and formulate a schedule. This meeting may come in the fall or late the preceding spring.

[1] The organization agreement of a league among universities is given in Appendix X.

III. The Triangular Debate

As its name indicates, the triangular debate is an arrangement whereby three debates are held at, or near, the same time. Each of three participating schools uses both an affirmative and a negative team, one at home, the other away from home. Suppose the schools are Hastings, Meadville, and Groton. A possible triangular schedule, then, might be:

At Hastings—Hastings affirmative: Meadville negative

At Meadville—Meadville affirmative: Groton negative

At Groton—Groton affirmative: Hastings negative

If a winner must be determined, it can be done on the basis of decisions, judges' votes, or percentages assigned the various teams by the judges.

The advantage of the triangle is that through it each member school has relations with two other schools and that two teams can be used. Although all three debates, theoretically, are held the same night, such need not be the case. However, not more than a few days should separate them.

A Specimen Compact for a Triangular Debate

Portage High School, Jamestown High School, and Lakeville High School enter into the following debate agreement:

1. *Schedule*

a. Three contests shall be held on the same date, one at each institution, these contests to occur on April 12, 1929.

b. The same question shall be used in all three debates, the visiting teams upholding the negative.

c. The schedule of debates shall be as follows: Jamestown negative vs. Lakeville affirmative at Lakeville.

Lakeville negative vs. Portage affirmative at Portage.

Portage negative vs. Jamestown affirmative at Jamestown.

2. *Question*

The question for debate shall be: "Resolved, that capital punishment for first-degree murder should be adopted in Wisconsin."

3. *Selection of Judges*

a. The entertaining school in each contest shall send the visiting school, not later than thirty days preceding the the debate, a list of ten or more candidates for judges. Each college shall have the right to challenge any or all of the candidates submitted by its opponents and to request other names to complete the list. Notice of such challenge shall be given within four days following receipt of the nominations. The visiting school may suggest names when it returns the entertaining school's list.

b. On the completion of a satisfactory list of judges the visiting school shall return such list to to the entertaining school. From this list the latter shall secure three judges, sending out invitations in the order of preference indicated by its opponent. If it is impossible to get three judges from the original list, the entertaining school shall submit other names under the same conditions.

c. Judges shall be more or less publicly known, professionally qualified to judge debate, not known to be prejudiced upon the subject at issue, not connected with either of the institutions concerned, and not in any other known way disqualified from rendering a fair and unbiased decision.

d. The school submitting the names shall indicate the forensic and official qualifications of the persons suggested.

e. Convenience and economy for the attending judges shall be a factor in the nomination and choice insofar as it may be consistent with the securing of able judges.

4. *Conduct of Debate*

a. Each school shall be represented at each contest in which it participates by three regularly enrolled students, boys or girls, with passing grades in at least three-fourths of their subjects.

b. Each speaker shall be allowed two speeches, one for main argument and one for rebuttal. Each team shall be allowed three ten-minute speeches for constructive argument, and each speaker shall be allowed five minutes for rebuttal. First constructive speech shall be made by the Affirmative and first rebuttal speech by the Negative.

c. Each judge shall decide for himself what constitutes effective debating except that he shall consider analysis, evidence, refutation, team-work, and delivery. Without consultation he shall vote affirmatively or negatively on the merits of the debate and NOT ON THE MERITS OF THE QUESTION. The ballots shall be collected and delivered to the presiding officer, who shall open them and announce the decision.

d. The presiding officer shall read Article 4, Section c of this agreement (omitting the last sentence) in the presence of the audience just before the debate, and each judge shall be provided with a typewritten copy of the section.

5. *Miscellaneous*

a. Each school shall pay all exepenses of its own debaters and all local expenses connected with the home debate, including the expenses of the judges.

b. It is agreed that reasonable fees may be paid judges for their services.

SIGNED:

_____

Principal (or Coach) Portage High School

_____

Principal (or Coach) Jamestown High School

_____

Principal (or Coach) Lakeville High School

IV. THE DUAL DEBATE

Here only two schools participate, each having both an affirmative and a negative team. The dual is perhaps

the most common form of debate relationship, although both triangles and singles are widely used.

With slight modifications the triangular compact just illustrated can be used to govern a dual debate.

V. The Single Debate

In this form A goes to B or B goes to A; there is not a mutual exchange. It is in the case of the single debate that the visiting team sometimes receives a cash payment from the entertaining school to equalize traveling expenses, although, as pointed out in the preceding chapter, an alternative arrangement of providing for a return debate at a later date is being increasingly adopted.

As an illustration of a compact that is brief yet sufficiently inclusive, an agreement for various single debates on a long trip taken by a men's team from Western State Teachers College is shown here. Under some of the headings, alternative methods are offered. The entertaining college in each case crossed off those alternatives not acceptable.

Agreement for Single Debate Between the Men's Team of

_____

(hereafter called the home team)

and

Western State Teachers College of Michigan
(hereafter called the visiting team)

at

_____

The undersigned, duly authorized representatives of the above mentioned colleges, agree as follows:

1. This debate shall be held on _____ 1926, at____P.M.
2. The proposition for debate shall be: "Resolved, that the

constitution of the United States should be amended to give Congress power to regulate child labor."

3. The visiting team shall uphold the ————————; the home team the ————————.
4. Each team shall consist of —— men, each having ——— minutes for constructive speech and ——— minutes for rebuttal. The affirmative shall open main speeches, the negative the rebuttal.
5. The debate shall be held without judges;

or

The debate shall be conducted English-style, with no rigid time limits, without separate rebuttals, and with the audience voting before and after the debate on the merits of the question;

or

The debate shall be decided by three judges. It is agreed that none of the judges shall be connected in any way with either institution. They shall be persons having no extreme views upon the topic for debate, and insofar as possible shall be experienced in judging, coaching, and debating.

At least one month in advance of the date for debate the home school shall submit to the visiting school a list of at least twelve names of possible judges, indicating their qualifications. The visiting school shall thereupon list the names in order of preference and return. The home school shall meet the expenses of judges.

6. The home school agrees to furnish the visiting team with the following:

Local entertainment for four men and coach; and a cash honorarium of $———.

SIGNED

For home team	For Western State Teachers College

In conclusion, it should be said that other arrangements besides those discussed here are possible, such as quadrangular and pentangular debates. The larger number of members tends to unwieldiness, however, and as such organizations are not common, discussion of them seems unnecessary.

CHAPTER X

THE FUTURE OF AMERICAN DEBATING

With educational policies and methods crashing about our ears and with changes occurring in various aspects of American life with kaleidoscopic rapidity and variety, rash is he who would predict what the future holds for debating. But of one thing we can be sure. While man lives, private and public discussion will endure. Says Glenn Frank: "Vital and vivid discussion is the flower that blossoms from the soil of a common concern."[1] Common concerns men have had since the dawn of history. It is the task and the privilege of the student and the teacher of debate to bring to the understanding and settlement of these concerns the disciplined thinking and the trained speaking that debate gives.

As debating serves education which is at the same time liberal and practical and as it vitally contributes to our common life, it will thrive and prosper. As it cultivates the academic, the artificial, the exhibitory, it will deservedly command ever less support and respect.

Happily, a new spirit is animating debate, a spirit of genuineness, of cooperative, constructive thinking-together. Perhaps we are indebted for it, in part, to our British visitors. At all events, it is fraught with very real possibilities for good. It needs to be given rein, but it must not take the bit in its teeth.

Some of the criticisms that have been leveled at contest debating in this country have been beside the point; others have been justified. To meet them various changes have been introduced in the mechanics of debating, and some of these changes have brought definite improvement. We have discovered, however, that it is the atti-

[1] Quoted in the 1928-1929 *Bulletin* of the Wisconsin High School Forensic Association.

tude, the spirit, that really makes the difference between a declamatory battle of words that ends where it began and an animated, communicative discussion that trains speakers and advances the understanding of listeners. Guided by this vision of vital speaking and constructive controversy, conserving the undoubted values of traditional American debating while rejecting its ineffective and unworthy non-essentials, we who teach and we who practice debate can go forward confidently. As we practice the open-mindedness which we profess our activity develops, and as we bring debate into dynamic relation with life, we serve the highest educational and civic ends.

It is not intended, of course, to give the impression that debate is the only speech activity that furthers these ends. By no means. Dramatics, oratory, extempore speaking, declamation, all these extra-curricular speech activities have their place. But the spirit and the goal here, likewise, are all-important. Is dramatics conducted as an activity to release the personalities of the participants, or is it merely a "show" for the gratification of patrons and the glorification of the director? Who writes the oration, the student or his teacher? Does he speak on a subject that means anything to him? Does he declaim or does he converse? Does the extempore speech grow out of conscientious study of current affairs together with diligent practice in speaking, or is a half-baked assembling of unassimilated facts frosted over with gifted glibness? Is the declamation a sharing with the audience or an exhibition for the audience? Is it a selection entering even remotely into the experience of the boy or girl giving it?

But I stray from the future of American *debating*. Suffice it to say that in all of these activities the influence of the teacher, the director, the coach—call him what you will—is decisive. Let him stand for commonsense, for genuineness, for training of the many as well

as the few, and the future, not merely of American debating, but of American speech contests, is assured.

And not merely of contests. Contests, rightly conducted, generate a demand for more instruction, for classroom instruction in speech. Thus shall the side shows lead to the big tent, the big tent of speech education, under competent and adequate direction, for all American youth. Then shall men and women know themselves better, and, knowing themselves, shall better understand one another. Then shall the final petition in the prayer of the ancient Greek teacher be answered:

O great Apollo, send down the reviving rain upon our fields; preserve our flocks; ward off our enemies; and—*build up our speech.*

Appendixes

APPENDIX I[1]

A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

High School Texts in Debate

Densmore, Gail E. Contest Debating. $1.50. George Wahr. Ann Arbor. '29.

Immel, Ray K. and Whipple, Ruth H. Debating for High Schools. $1.36. Ginn and Co. '29.

O'Neill, James M. A Manual of Debate and Oral Discussion for Schools, Societies and Clubs. $1.50. Century. '20.

Reeves, J. Walter. The Fundamentals of Argumentation and Debate. rev. ed. $.60. D. C. Heath and Co. '28.

Willhoft, Waldo O. Modern Debate Practice. $1.32. Prentice-Hall Inc. '29.

General Speech Texts for High School

Most of these give some specific attention to debating.

Baker, Elizabeth W. Oral English. $1.40. Allyn and Bacon. '28.

Craig, Alice E. The Speech Arts. $1.60. Macmillan. '26.

Gough, Harry B., Rousseau, Lousene, Cramer, Mary E., and Reeves, J. W. Effective Speech. $1.60. Harper. '30.

Lockwood, Francis C. and Thorpe, Clarence De W. Public Speaking Today. $1.40. Benjamin H. Sanborn and Co. '21.

Sandford, William P. and Yeager Willard H. Successful Speaking. $1.40. Thomas Nelson and Sons. '27.

Shurter, Edwin D. and Tower, Donald M. Oral English and Public Speaking. $1.20. Row, Peterson and Co. '27.

Smith, William P. Oral English for Secondary Schools. rev. ed. $1.40. Macmillan. '26.

Stratton, Clarence. Public Speaking. $1.48. Henry Holt and Co. '20.

Woolbert, Charles H. and Weaver, Andrew T. Better Speech. rev. & enl. $1.52. Harcourt, Brace and Co. '29.

[1] A more complete listing of books, together with an extensive bibliography of periodical references on debate, will be found in E. M. Phelps's *Debaters' Manual*. 6th ed. rev. 1929. Published by the H. W. Wilson Company.

Advanced Texts in Debate

Baird, A. Craig. Public Discussion and Debate. $1.92. Ginn and Co. '28.

Collins, George R. and Morris, John S. Persuasion and Debate. $2. Harper. '27.

Foster, William T. Argumentation and Debating. rev. ed. Houghton Mifflin. '17.

O'Neill, James M., Laycock, Craven, and Scales, Robert L. Argumentation and Debate. $2.10. Macmillan. '17.

Shaw, Warren C. The Art of Debate. $1.40. Allyn and Bacon. '22.

Winans, James A. and Utterback, William E. Argumentation. $2.25. Century. '30.

Advanced Texts in Speech

Speech in General

Avery, Elizabeth, Dorsey, Jane O., and Sickels, Vera A. First Principles of Speech Training. $3. D. Appleton and Co. '28.

O'Neill, James M. and Weaver, Andrew T. The Elements of Speech. $2.80. Longmans, Green. '26.

Woolbert, Charles H. Fundamentals of Speech. rev. ed. $2.25. Harper. '27.

Public Speaking

Dolman, John. A Handbook of Public Speaking. $1. Harcourt, Brace, and Co. '22.

Higgins, Howard H. Influencing Behavior Through Speech. $2.50. Expression Co. Boston. '30.

Sandford, William P. and Yeager, Willard H. Principles of Effective Speaking. $2.25. Thomas Nelson and Sons. '28.

Shurter, Edwin D. and Marsh, Charles A. Practical Speech Making. $1.60. Houghton Mifflin. '29.

West, Robert. W. Purposive Speaking. $1.25. Macmillan. '24.

Williamson, Arleigh B. Speaking in Public. $2.50. Prentice-Hall Inc. '29.

Winans, James A. Public Speaking. rev. ed. $2.25. Century. '17.

Speech Composition

Brigance, William N. The Spoken Word. $2.25. F. S. Crofts and Co. N.Y. '27.

Shurter, E. D. The Rhetoric of Oratory. $1.75. Macmillan. '20.

Specimen Debates

Phelps, Edith M. ed. University Debaters' Annual. $2.25. H. W. Wilson Co. Yearly.

Nichols, Egbert R. ed. Intercollegiate Debates. $2.50. Noble and Noble. Yearly.

Collections of Speeches

Brigance, William N. comp. Classified Speech Models of Eighteen Forms of Public Address. $2.75. F. S. Crofts and Co. N.Y. '28.

Lindgren, Homer D. comp. Modern Speeches. $3. F. S. Crofts and Co. '26.

O'Neill, James M. comp. Models of Speech Composition. $3.50. Century. '21.

O'Neill, James M. comp. Modern Short Speeches. $1.75. Century. '23.

References for the Teacher

Drummond, A. M. ed. Speech Training and Public Speaking for Secondary Schools. $1.25. Century. '25.

Prepared under the direction of the National Association of Teachers of Speech. Contains outlines of various high school courses and a large number of special articles on all phases of speech work by various leaders in the profession.

Elliott, Harrison S. The Process of Group Thinking. $3. Association Press. N.Y. '28.

An authoritative book on group discussion, with special reference to the leader. A standard guide to the theory and procedure of group discussion.

Phelps, Edith M. ed. Debaters' Manual. 6th ed. rev. $1.50. H. W. Wilson Co. '29.

Selected articles on debate theory and practice of interest to students and coaches; also bibliographies on numerous public questions.

Quarterly Journal of Speech. $2.50 a year.

Official publication of the National Association of Teachers of Speech. H. L. Ewbank, Business Manager, University of Wisconsin.

Speech Bulletin. $2 for 4 issues.

Published by the National Association of Teachers of Speech and designed for secondary schools.

APPENDIX II
TOPICS FOR DEBATE

There are two reasons for offering suggested debate subjects in the form of topics rather than propositions. Specifically worded propositions often soon become obsolete because of changed conditions and so are no longer usable. In the second place, a topic may be used for the formulation of various sorts of propositions: policy, fact, theoretical soundness, philosophical, factual.

School and Local Questions

The small college versus the large university
The honor system
Interscholastic athletics
Secret societies in high school
Student self-government
The value of a college education
Speech as a required subject
Abolition of final examinations
The consolidated school
Extra-curricular activities
Teaching of evolution
Reading of the Bible in school
Decisions in debates
Twelve-month school sessions
The junior high school
Abolition of "marks" and "grades"
Commission form of government for ————————
City-manager form of government for ————————
Street cars versus busses
Sunday movies
Abolition of national party labels in local elections

Larger Economic, Social, Political, and Philosophical Questions

Censorship
Freedom of speech
Unemployment
Child labor
Prohibition
Public ownership of public utilities
Abolition of the jury system
Capital punishment
The Monroe Doctrine
Direct popular nomination of President and Vice President
Abolition of the electoral college
A single Presidential term of six years
Abolition of the "lame-duck" session of Congress
The coal industry
A lakes-to-ocean deep waterway
Proportional representation
A new liberal-conservative political alignment
The tariff
Farm relief
Socialism
Disarmament
Immigration
Philippine independence
China
Pacifism
Recognition of Russia by the United States
Control of hydroelectric power
Abolition of the direct primary
Installment buying
War debts and reparations
A five-day labor week
A Federal department of education

The metric system
The "white man's burden"
Military training
Compulsory voting
Old-age pensions
Cabinet-parliamentary government for the United States
Declaration of war by popular vote
The League of Nations
Annexation of Canada
Party loyalty versus independent voting
Injunctions in labor disputes
Labor unions
Revision of the Federal Constitution
Reciprocity with Canada (with South America)
The "short ballot"
Popular election of judges
Restriction of the power of the Supreme Court
Stock speculation
The radio
Democracy (For example: "Democracy has failed")
Relative contribution of science and the arts
Civilization (For example: "This house pities its grandchildren")

APPENDIX III

ORGANIZATIONS ISSUING MATERIAL USEFUL FOR DEBATE[1]

American Federation of Labor. A. F. of L. Building, Washington, D.C.

Anti-Saloon League of America. Bliss Building, Washington, D.C.

Bankers Association, American. 110 East 42d Street, New York

Building and Loan Associations, U. S. League of. 22 East 12th Street, Cincinnati, Ohio

Capital Punishment, League to Abolish. 104 Fifth Avenue, New York

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. 2 Jackson Place N. W., Washington, D.C.

Chamber of Commerce of the U. S. A. 1615 H Street N. W., Washington, D.C.

Child Labor Committee, National. 215 Fourth Avenue, New York

Child Welfare Association, National. 70 Fifth Avenue, New York

Churches of Christ in America, Federal Council of the. 105 East 22d Street, New York

Civic Federation, National. 1 Madison Avenue, New York

Civil Liberties Union, American. 100 Fifth Avenue, New York

College Entrance Examination Board. 431 West 117th Street, New York

Colleges, Association of American. 111 Fifth Avenue, New York

Colored People, National Association for the Advancement of. 69 Fifth Avenue, New York

Consumers' League, National. 156 Fifth Avenue, New York

Daughters of the American Revolution, National Society. Memorial Continental Hall, Washington, D.C.

[1] Many other organizations are listed in the World Almanac. Those given here are most serviceable for debate purposes.

Economic Research, National Bureau of. 474 West 24th Street, New York

Education Association, National. 1201 16th Street N. W., Washington, D.C.

Electric Light Association, National. 420 Lexington Avenue, New York

Farm Bureau Federation, American. 58 East Washington Street, Chicago

Farm Congress, American. 909 Continental Building, Kansas City, Missouri

Foreign Policy Association. 18 East 41st Street, New York

Free Trade League, International. Secretary: Florence Garvin, R.F.D. 2, Wilmington, Del.

Industrial Conference Board, National. 247 Park Avenue, New York

Industrial Democracy, League for. 70 Fifth Avenue, New York

Labor Legislation, American Association for. 131 East 23d Street, New York

Law, American Society of International. 2 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.

League of Nations Non-Partisan Association. 6 East 39th Street, New York

Lord's Day Alliance of the United States. 156 Fifth Avenue, New York

Manufacturers of the United States, National Association of. 11 West 42d Street, New York

Medical Association, American. 535 North Dearborn Street, Chicago

Metric Association. 156 Fifth Avenue, New York

Militarism in Education, Committee on. 387 Bible House, Astor Place, New York

Motion Pictures, National Board of Review of. 70 Fifth Avenue, New York

Municipal League, National. 261 Broadway, New York

Municipal Research, Bureau of. 261 Broadway, New York

Navy League of the United States. 1749 E Street N. W., Washington, D.C.

Old Age Security, American Association for. Room 2004, 104 Fifth Avenue, New York

Pan American Union. Washington, D.C.

Parents and Teachers, National Congress of. 1201 16th Street N. W., Washington, D.C.

Peace Foundation, World. 40 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston

Peace Society, American. Room 613, Colorado Building, Washington, DC.

People's Lobby. 39 Bliss Building, Washington, D.C.

Philippine Press Bureau. 549 Investment Building, Washington, D.C.

Prison Association, American. 135 East 15th Street, New York

Prisons and Prison Labor, National Committee on. Room 1006, 730 Fifth Avenue, New York

Prohibition Amendment, Association Against the. 1523 L Street N. W., Washington, D.C.

Prohibition Association, Intercollegiate. Driscoll Hotel, Washington, D.C.

Proportional Representation League. 1417 Locust Street, Philadelphia

Railroads, Committee on Public Relations of the Eastern. 143 Liberty Street, New York

Railway Economics, Bureau of. Transportation Building, Washington, D.C.

Reconciliation, Fellowship of. 383 Bible House, Astor Place, New York

Reform Federation, International. 206 Pennsylvania Avenue S. E., Washington, D.C.

Religious Education, International Council of. 5 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago

Scientific Temperance Federation. 400 Boylston Street, Boston

Stable Money Association. 104 Fifth Avenue, New York

Steamship Owners Association, American. 11 Broadway, New York

Teachers, American Federation of. 506 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago

Thrift, American Society for. 9 East 46th Street, New York

War, National Council for Prevention of. 532 17th Street N. W., Washington, D.C.

Woman's Christian Temperance Union. 1730 Chicago Avenue, Evanston, Ill.

Woman's Party, National. 21 First Street N. E., Washington, D.C.

Women Voters, National League of. 532 17th Street N. W., Washington, D.C.

Women's Clubs, General Federation of. 1734 N Street N. W., Washington, D.C.

Women's Trade Union League, New York. 247 Lexington Avenue, New York

Young Men's Christian Association of North America. 347 Madison Avenue, New York

Young Women's Christian Associations of the U. S. A. 600 Lexington Avenue, New York

APPENDIX IV
SPECIMEN FORMS

A. A First Affirmative Speech [1]

This speech was delivered in 1927 on the preposition, "Resolved, that the essential features of the McNary-Haugen farm relief bill should be enacted into law."

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: In discussing such a problem as we have before us tonight we have found that it is very hard to prevent the discussion from becoming so technical and complicated that it would be entirely uninteresting to the ordinary person. We hope, however, that tonight, with the help of our friends of the negative, we can keep the question in its simplest terms and so avoid as many undesirable and unnecessary technicalities as possible. We wish to make it very clear at the outset that we are not necessarily debating the McNary-Haugen bill which President Coolidge saw fit to veto. We are discussing only the essential features of that bill, which might be embodied in any form of legislation, just so those essential features are included.

As I mentioned a moment ago, President Coolidge has vetoed the McNary-Haugen bill. It may seem rather queer to some of you that we should be debating the essential features of a proposition that has already received the disapproval of our president. However, ladies and gentlemen, we do not feel that the bill is permanently dead. The condition of agriculture demands some sort of relief, and despite the president's veto and the opposition of the industrial East, the fight for help is bound to be continued by the farmers of this country until they receive the aid which they are demanding and to which they are certainly entitled.

In brief, the essential features of the McNary-Haugen bill call for a representative Federal farm board, which, through loans and contracts with co-operative organizations of farmers, will control the surplus of basic agricultural commodities in order to prevent that surplus from depressing the home market.

[1] By Mr. James McMonagle.

Now in discussing these essential features of the McNary-Haugen bill as a means of relieving the farmer, we wish to propose three very common-sense questions around which we feel the discussion will naturally fall. In the first place, is the condition of the farmer such that it warrants national legislation? Secondly, will these features, if incorporated into law, accomplish their aim? And last, would a law including these essential features be sound from the standpoint of national welfare?

Sitting here on the debate platform or out there in the audience, we are, to all outward appearances, about as far removed from the ordinary dirt farmer as anyone or anything could possibly be. And yet, ladies and gentlemen, thinking people are beginning to realize that we are not as far removed from the farm nor as independent of it as some of us would like to believe. Agricultural production is so closely interwoven with the general business structure of the nation, and plays so large a part in our national economic life, that there is no individual, no matter what his occupation or place, who would not ultimately be affected by continued agricultural depression. Agriculture affects you and me just as vitally as it affects the farmer because it can plainly be seen that trouble among the farmers is bound to be felt by the entire nation, and depression for the farmer means depression for the whole country.

Realizing, then, that the farmer cannot be ignored because he is the most important factor in industry today, let us investigate the present situation of the farmer so that we may see just why we are on this platform tonight.

It is universally conceded that for several years past agriculture has been unprofitable. We all realize that the farmer works harder, lives more economically, and has fewer of the ordinary pleasures of life than any other class of our citizenry. For several years past, the farmer, while practicing the greatest of economy, has scarcely been able to make both ends meet. "Last year," says Virgil Jordan, chief economist of the National Industrial Conference Board of New York, "the returns on the farms of America yielded scarcely 2 per cent on the assessed valuation." Think of it, ladies and gentlemen, here in the United States, the richest country on the globe, our farmers receive less than 2 per cent on the money they invest in their farms. The story of the American farmer for the past six or

seven years has been simply the story of one bank failure after another throughout the country. Just to cite one example, let me quote from the New York *Times* for November 27, 1926. "Nineteen banks," says the *Times*, "were closed today in two counties in Iowa in an effort to halt the withdrawal of funds which threatened disaster." And Iowa includes the richest farm land in the United States, where we have a wide diversification of farming. During 1926 there were 574 bank failures with total liabilities of $185,000,000. And the important thing to notice here, friends, is the fact that almost all of the closed banks were located in agricultural districts. It is easy to see, then, that the farmer is in a bad situation from which he cannot extricate himself. Now let us discover the cause of this trouble.

This depressed condition of the farmer is due to the fact that he produces, and cannot well avoid producing, a surplus above domestic requirements and so does not receive the benefits of the tariff. The tariff is a plan devised for the purpose of protecting the American manufacturer by placing a tax or duty on cheap foreign goods shipped to this country. As a result of this tariff duty American manufacturers are able to demand a high price for their goods, and consequently the farmer when he goes to town to buy, must pay a high price for those things if he gets them. This tariff plan, however, does not work for the farmer because we do not import farm products but rather export them, and as an agricultural nation, we produce, as I said before, a surplus above domestic requirements. This surplus is sold in the foreign market and in competition with cheap foreign products. Of course, that is not what is actually causing the trouble. To sell what surplus we have at the foreign price is perfectly correct. But the trouble comes when we realize that this cheap foreign price at which we must sell our surplus not only determines the price of that surplus but also determines the price of the entire crop. And that is what is causing the trouble, for the American farmer cannot afford to sell his whole crop at the same price that he must sell his surplus in the foreign market.

Let us consider then, what position this leaves the farmer in. The farmer cannot limit his production like the manufacturer. It is necessary for him to cultivate to the limit of his energy, and when he has once sown the seed, amount of his production depends to a great extent upon the elements of nature. He cannot tell in advance whether there will be a big crop or a small

one. He cannot know whether there will be a surplus or a shortage. We can see, therefore, that the farmer has no control of his surplus because he cannot limit his production even if it were a desirable thing for him to do.

Since the farmer must have a surplus, the next best thing for him to try to do is to control the foreign price. This, however, is just as obviously impossible. Foreign countries with their cheap labor and low standards of living can easily produce farm products much more cheaply than they can be produced by the American farmer.

Now, ladies and gentlemen, if the farmer cannot control his surplus and if he cannot control the price he is to get for that surplus, then there is but one thing left for him to do. He must sell his surplus in such a way that it will not affect the price he is to get for the rest of the crop. It is clear that the individual farmer cannot do this. However, if the producers of any farm product were completely organized, like the citrus fruit growers of California for example; if all of the farmers raising a given crop could overcome space and competition and could completely organize, then they would be able to meet this problem of the surplus. And that is what the farmer is trying to do today. That is the very thing the McNary-Haugen bill proposes to help the farmer do. And that is why we are advocating the essential features of that bill here tonight. The fundamental principle of the McNary-Haugen bill is to meet the problem of the surplus by preventing the price the farmer gets for his surplus in the foreign market from determining the price of the product he sells at home.

Time prevents me from going into further detail as to the workings of this plan. However, we have discovered thus far, that the problem with which the farmer is faced is a national one and a serious one and demands governmental aid. For that reason we advocate the adoption of the essential features of the McNary-Haugen bill, because it is a national help to a national industry.

B. An Outline for a First Negative Speech

The following outline is for a first negative speech delivered in 1926 on the proposition, "Resolved, that the United States should recognize the present government of Russia."[2]

[2] Speech by Mr. E. J. Jennings.

I. Some time recognition may be possible, but has that time come yet?
   A. If the affirmative favor recognition now, they must clear up certain questions that arise in the minds of us all.
      1. What about Russia's repudiation of American loans and confiscation of American property?
      2. Do we not by unconditional recognition approve and validate these acts?
      3. Does the Soviet Government represent the Russian people or is it controlled by a clique representing the Communist Internationale?
      4. Can we ignore the fact that this Internationale is carrying on propaganda in this country intended to overthrow our Government?
      5. Would recognition bring benefits sufficient to compensate for the risks involved?

II. This problem cannot be solved by precedent, for there is no precedent for the present situation.
   A. Complete repudiation and confiscation unique.
   B. Similarly with Russia's duplicity.
      1. At the same time the Russian government asks for recognition her leaders insult us and threaten our institutions.
         a. Only a few days ago, in an Associated Press dispatch, Trotsky is quoted as saying "Our only enemy is American capital."
         b. You will hear more about Communist propaganda before the debate is over.

III. Since precedent is worthless, let us consider another criterion, that of stability.
   A. Although we of the negative do not deny that the Soviet Government is outwardly stable today, we call your attention to the means by which it maintains its stability.
      1. Huge standing army.
      2. Efficient *cheka*, or secret police.
      3. Suppression of free speech.
         a. Emma Goldman, deported, as you remember, from the United States, says, "There is no such thing as freedom of speech in Russia."

b. Congressman Britten of Illinois, who spent several months in Russia, says the same thing.

4. Manipulation of such elections as are held.
   a. Quotation from London *Times* concerning decree by Kalinin, President of the Union of Soviets, calling for new elections where the previous one "gave undesirable results regarded strictly from the standpoint of consolidating the Soviet authority."
   b. Can suppression and coercion always be maintained? Is stability secured by these means real stability?

IV. In view of these various questionable practices, we of the negative urge that recognition by the United States be at least deferred.

C. A Balanced Summary

A balanced summary, its fullness dependent on the urgency of answering outstanding opposing arguments, (and a summary that contains argument is often more telling than the consideration of separate points) is often used by the last affirmative. The following excerpt is taken from the concluding speech of a Purdue University speaker.[3] He has organized his summary about speeches; he might have done it about issues.

Since the negative have closed their case, we will now consider their case as a whole. The first speaker of the negative has attempted to show that the present agricultural situation does not warrant the enactment of the McNary-Haugen bill. First, because there was a similar situation at the close of the Civil War, and this situation was remedied without the enactment of legislation. On studying the analogy we find that the conditions existing at the close of the Civil War are not comparable to those of today. . . For this reason we see that this analogy does not hold and may not be used as evidence that there is not need; but on the other hand, the affirmative has shown by numerous statistics that there is a need for agricultural relief. The gentlemen of the negative say that the situation has resulted from the enormous increase in production during the War, and therefore more farmers must go out of business. During the War,

[3] Mr. R. W. Dornte. *University Debaters' Annual*: 1926-1927. p. 51-3. Reprinted by permission of The H. W. Wilson Company.

the government encouraged farmers to produce their maximum, and the farmers in response to the national needs increased their production. Now the gentlemen of the negative wish to reward this patriotic service by ruining the farmers. They have said that the other causes, besides the surplus, have contributed to the present depression, and therefore a solution must remedy all the causes. They are assuming that a law to be effective must remedy all the causes. This assumption is unjustified and unsupported by evidence; for example, crime laws are generally considered effective in reducing crime, but do not affect the fundamental causes of crime. Furthermore, the McNary-Haugen bill in controlling the surplus will increase the price to the farmers as the preceding speakers of the affirmative have shown and thus improve the agriculture situation.

The second speaker of the negative has attempted to show that the principles of the McNary-Haugen bill are inadequate to the present situation. In my previous speech I have shown that this argument is unsound because it is not substantiated by evidence and is contrary to the statistics from the Agricultural Year Book of 1925. On the other hand, the affirmative have shown that the bill is practical and by controlling the surplus will increase the farmers' price.

The third speaker of the negative has said that the principles of the McNary-Haugen bill are unsound economically because increased prices will cause over-production. . . The gentleman has assumed that increased prices of agricultural products cause increased production. In the period 1909 to 1925, the price of corn increased in eight different years, yet in five of the cases the following year there was a decrease in production. This means that in the case of corn 62.5 per cent of the times when there has been an increase in price, there was a decrease in production. In the case of wheat, in 44.4 per cent of the times when there was an increase in the price, there was decrease in production. Other examples of this can be cited. From this we see that the preceding argument is false and not substantiated by reliable evidence.

Let us summarize the affirmative case. We have seen that at the present time agriculture is in a dire situation, and the negative agrees to this. We have shown that orderly marketing and control of the surplus is the only practical means of controlling the farmers' income. The affirmative has shown that control of

production is impossible and undesirable, and since the negative have taken no exception to this we must assume that they must agree with us on this point. We have seen further that present marketing agencies are not effective, and thus there is a need for the McNary-Haugen bill. In the second place the affirmative has shown that the principles of the McNary-Haugen bill will make possible control of surplus and orderly marketing. In the third place the affirmative has shown that the principles of the McNary-Haugen bill are based upon sound business practice. The McNary-Haugen bill enables the farmers to have an effective marketing program. For these reasons we of the affirmative advocate that the principles of the McNary-Haugen bill be enacted in federal legislation.

APPENDIX V

A NATIONAL SURVEY OF HIGH SCHOOL DEBATING[1]

The following report is taken from a longer article that appeared in *School and Society* for November 24, 1928, written by Professor H. A. White of the University of Nebraska, who conducted the survey. Questionnaires were sent to every state in the union, and replies were received from twenty-four: Arkansas, Colorado, Georgia, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Jersey, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Virginia, Vermont, Washington, West Virginia and Wisconsin. The trend toward the reduction of the number of judges has continued, even to the extent, in a few instances, of doing away with judges entirely in preliminary contests.

(1) "What organization fosters high-school debating in your state?" Extension divisions in thirteen states organize the high schools into various groups or districts, in five cases with the assistance of some state organization of teachers; in five states independent societies or institutions manage the debates; in four states the English or speech departments; in two states no general organization exists. Most have a high-school debate league or association, with headquarters at the state university, and with officers chosen in part from the high schools participating.

(2) "What types of questions have proved most suitable for debates?" Seven mention political topics; four, those "of national interest"; five, economic; three, social; and only two, topics of local or distinctly state interest. Four complain that subjects are often chosen that are too technical or difficult for high-school students.

(3) "Are the propositions for debate chosen by a single person, a committee, or by vote of the participating schools?" Seven report that the committee of officers chooses the propositions for debate; four, a committee of high-school teachers; eight report a referendum by the participating schools; two

[1] Reprinted by permission of the author and of the publishers of *School and Society*.

report action by an individual. In four cases the schools submit the subjects, and the committee chooses from the entire group so collected; in eight instances the committee submits the subjects, and the schools, by majority vote, pick from that list sent them.

(4) "How is the championship of the state determined?" In eighteen states there is some type of elimination contest by districts, counties or conferences, and then the winners proceed to some central point, usually to the state university, for a final championship tournament. One state has a tournament open to all high schools; one arranges for district championships only; one has both district and "conference" contests; one allows any team that wins both sides to appear in the final tournament at some central point.

(5) "What special methods have been used to increase the interest in debating among high-school students themselves?" In eight different states rewards in the nature of prizes, wall plaques or debate certificates are offered; in six, unusual newspaper publicity tends to attract debaters, and one reply mentions that debating attracts interest similar to that in athletic contests; two states send intercollegiate debaters out to talk before high-school audiences; five emphasize radio talks by the secretary of the state league; and four mention enlisting the sympathy and cooperation of school officials. Four recall the difficulties in gaining the financial support of school boards.

(6) "What was the approximate size of the audiences at the championship contests last year?" Of the specific replies to this query, the numbers mentioned are given in order: 200, 4,000 (in Michigan for 1928, increased by 500 over the 1927 audience), 300-500, 300, 1,000, 600, 200, 400, 300, 100, 400. These figures tend to show that debating still draws fair-sized crowds. Inasmuch as most of the championship teams appeared before audiences away from home, it seems that a considerable number of the persons who heard debates were attracted not by friendship for the speakers, but by interest in the debates as contests or in the subjects discussed. Four replies mention that public interest in debate is small, but seven note a gradual increase from year to year.

(7) "Was admission charged for the championship contests?" Negative replies, thirteen; affirmative, five; occasionally, three; not specified, three.

(8) "From what class, group or occupation do you select judges most often?" Professional men in general are mentioned the greatest number of times, eight; more definitely, teachers are named five times; debate coaches, three; college professors, five; lawyers, six; student intercollegiate debaters, three; and clergymen, two. Two replies specify that judges are usually chosen from among those who have had collegiate experience in debating.

(9) "Do you use the single, critic judge in any debates?" Yes, fourteen, including four that use no other type; no, three; will change to single-judge plan, three; use single-judge seldom, one; indefinite replies, four. Despite the apparent trend toward the use of one judge who is known to be well qualified by experience, the greater majority of states still use most often the three-judge plan of decision.

(10) "Comment on any notable successes or failures in the judging systems that you have been using." Five mention that their plans are working well, but seven express general or specific dissatisfaction with some form or all forms of judging; four use only expert judges in state contests; North Dakota has, for two years, used successfully seven judges in the championship debate.

. . .

One may not be wholly justified in generalizing from the replies to these questions. They seem to show the trend, however, in several directions. Subjects seem to be chosen from among broad, national topics of the times rather than from local or sectional ones. More than half the states of the Union have definitely organized debating in the high schools, and in nearly every instance there is provision for a state tournament or some similar means of determining the best school debate in a given season. Judging still is a sore point in more than one state, with the tendency in favor of having one or a few expert judges. Finally, so far as public interest goes, most of the states seem to be holding their own. Whether the high-school debaters are making much of an impression on their home communities can hardly be determined. Yet, out of the hundreds of debates on the McNary-Haugen bill or on the Curtis-Reed bill or some other national education measure, undoubtedly there has been no little sublimation of popular opinion.

APPENDIX VI

A SURVEY OF INTERCOLLEGIATE DEBATING IN THE MIDDLE WEST[1]

This survey was conducted in the spring of 1927 by the Mid-West Debate Conference, a loose organization of about twenty colleges whose representatives meet annually to choose a question for debate. Questionnaires were sent to one hundred and three colleges and universities in the Middle West; fifty-six institutions responded. The report as given here is abridged from the official report by the Conference secretary, Mildred Freburg Berry of Rockford College, as it appeared in the *Quarterly Journal of Speech* for February, 1928.

I. The Financing Of Debate

The returns from the questionnaire indicate that most of the colleges have established a definite financial plan which guarantees them a specified sum of money each year for intercollegiate debate.

(1) Computing the average, we find that each college spent $697.54 to carry on debate during 1926-1927.

(2) Forty-two schools or 78 per cent rely on student asssessment. Three of these schools receive in addition some aid from the general college budget. Thirty-nine or 72.7 per cent of the colleges rely entirely on student assessment.

(3) Thirteen schools receive their entire support for forensics from the general college budget.

(4) Eleven schools are aided by revenue from debate. Thirty-five schools note that they cannot look for any revenue from debate. The largest amount of revenue from debate noted is $200.

(5) The average assessment on the student for debate is $1.00 plus. The range of assessment is from $.17 to $2.00. Only two schools, however, have an assessment of less than $.50 and in these two cases the student enrollment is over 1500.

[1] Reprinted by permission of the author and of the publishers of the *Quarterly Journal of Speech.*

II. Types Of Debate

(1) The preference of the colleges is for one of two types of debate: the "open-forum-no-decision" or the "expert decision" (one judge) debate. Forty-six schools note that they use the first plan; forty-four schools note the second. It must be remembered that each college had the opportunity to record every form it had used. Unfortunately the writer neglected to request that the number of each type used be recorded. Two-thirds of the colleges noted, however, that they used the no-decision-open-forum type most frequently. . . Only twenty-two schools made use of an audience decision on the merits of the question before and after the debate. Twenty-five schools have had decision debates followed by an open forum; thirty-four have employed the traditional three judges to decide the issue.

(2) That colleges show little inclination to reduce the number of speakers on a team is evident from the reports. Fifty-six or all of the colleges maintain that the "three-man team" is the best. Twenty-two schools note, to be sure, that they have participated in "two-man" debates but these seem to have been only single experiences. The notation, "But once," in answer to this question seems to indicate that it does not have ardent support. Only three colleges reported having engaged in a "split-team" debate.

(3) In regard to the most popular number of rebuttal speeches, there can be little doubt. It is true that twenty-one institutions have engaged in one-rebuttal debates but the highest number of this type in any one college was five. Contrast with this the fact that fifty-two schools heard six rebuttal speeches in nine out of every ten debates. Fourteen colleges have varied their debates by having two rebuttals but here again it seems to have been the variation rather than the rule.

(4) The "off-campus" debate has taken great strides forward. In forty-three colleges this form of debate is in favor. The number of such debates ranges from two to twenty-four.

III. Administration Of Debate

(1) Forty-five of the fifty-six institutions responding award academic credit for debate. The average number of credits is two hours a semester. The method of awarding this credit varies with colleges. One college allows three hours per semester, the

total number of hours to be accumulated in this manner not to exceed twelve. Another college awards two hours to members of the first year squad, three hours to members of the sophomore, junior and senior squads. Credit at another institution is given to the members of the squad who are enrolled in the course, "Debate Seminar."

The question of awarding credit to the entire squad shows a divided opinion. Twenty-five of the forty-five schools who award credit believe that it should be given to the entire squad; the remaining twenty award it to intercollegiate debaters only.

(2) Seventy per cent of the colleges allow first year students to debate.

(3) One of the three plans for selecting debaters is mentioned by all colleges.

a. Fourteen schools favor what might be termed the "invitation squad," i. e., no formal tryouts are held; any student may join the squad. An intensive study of the question is made by all members. The students are not chosen for the specific teams until shortly before the debate, the period varying from one day to two weeks.

b. The second plan in favor we will call the "competitive squad." The group is selected by public tryout, with judges either from the department of speech or from other departments of the college. The director of debate then selects his teams from the squad. . .

c. The third plan, mentioned by nine collges is the "class" method, of which the following is a representative explanation: "I have all prospects enroll in a class in theory. I pick the best men from this class. The question is studied from one to three months. We divide the class into teams and have actual debates. Those members who are not selected for platform work are utilized in research, publicity, etc."

d. Some colleges believe that the best plan is to have a series of actual debates, employing the same judges for all the contests. Other colleges mention a progressive series of class debates, inter-class debates, and college debates to determine the intercollegiate debate team.

(4) From the returns of the questionnaire, it is evident that women have invaded the forensic field to stay. Nine colleges out of every ten have women participating in intercollegiate debate. Forty-four institutions have separate women's teams,—eleven institutions a separate director for women's debate.

(5) Medals and election to an honorary society seem to be the favorite way of awarding distinction to debaters. Twenty-five schools give medals; thirty-four schools have honorary forensic societies,—Delta Sigma Rho, Pi Kappa Delta, Tau Kappa Alpha. A few colleges give gavels to intercollegiate debaters; others award college pins, money, numerals, or sweaters.

(6) On the average, the colleges use seventeen students in intercollegiate debate each year. The numbers run from seven in the case of J— College to fifty-one at U— College. The squad is a somewhat larger group, averaging twenty-five members. The largest squad recorded was seventy-five.

(7) The figures on attendance are so frequently qualified that it is difficult to find a true average. For instance, V— College writes: "The average is 230. At the college it was about 30. The mean is swelled by the debates before high schools and community groups." Again, J— College answers to this question: "Usually about 125; international debate, 1800; one debate on farm relief before special audience, 1100."

(8) The titles of the departments which direct debate were a source of interest. Debate was under the direction of the "Department of Public Speaking" in nineteen colleges, "Department of Speech" in thirteen colleges, "Department of Oratory" in one college, "Department of Expression" in one college, "Department of Reading and Speech" in one college, "Department of English," in eighteen colleges, "Department of Political Science" in one college, "Department of Chemistry" in one college, "Department of Economics" in one college.

(9) The teaching load of the director of debate varies somewhat from college to college, the extremes being nine and seventeen hours. The average schedule is fourteen hours.

V. General Information

(1) Only one college declares that there is so much student interest in debate that it is unnecessary for them to give the matter thought. The majority confess it to be a most baffling problem.

Suggestions as to the remedy for this situation center around four principal ideas: (1) election to honorary society; (2) debates away from home (all debaters like some award; give them a few attractive trips); (3) interesting, non-academic

practices; (d) advertisement through college and local papers, assembly or chapel speeches, home debates, letters to high school teachers, etc. These suggestions are mentioned by two-thirds of the colleges. Other suggestions which may be of help are: (a) Popularization of the material for presentation by employment of humor, elimination of desk-hammering, aggressive oratory, etc. (b) medals and prizes; (c) a system of intramural debate; (d) "decision" debates (develop a winning team); (e) "no-decision-open-forum" debates; (f) a Mid-West Debate Tournament.

(c) It was difficult to gain an opinion of the type of question that debate directors preferred because of the use of ambiguous terminology. A number of colleges declare that they like no certain type; they use both philosophical and practical questions. Other colleges claim that the philosophical question is excellent for open-forum and more interesting to the audience, but that it demands a maturity and background of debaters that is difficult to find. Twenty-five colleges hold that the practical question is the better, seventeen colleges vote for the philosophical question.

(d) In regard to the problem of judging, it is evident that we are changing from the traditional three-judge system to the single expert critic judge. Twenty-five colleges maintain that it is the best solution to the problem of decisions. The three-judge plan still has support, however; fourteen colleges favor it. Three colleges vote that they prefer three expert critic judges,—a slightly different proposition. If there must be a decision, say seven colleges, let it be on defense decision on the merits of the question before and after the debate. The remainder of the colleges believe in no-decision debating.

(e) The matter of a cash guarantee to visiting teams is answered in the majority of instances with qualifications. Twenty-six colleges state that they are willing to make a cash guarantee if it is sufficiently small, if the team is so scored that it will aid the cause of debating on the local campus, or if the arrangement is reciprocal in subsequent years. Twenty-four colleges maintain a policy of "no guarantees," stating in support of their policy that they prefer to spend their money on their own debaters and establish permanent dual relationships with nearby institutions.

(g) The chart showing the preference in number and length of speeches is self-explanatory.

Constructive	Rebuttal
31 colleges favor 10 minute speeches	31 colleges favor 5 minute speeches
11 colleges favor 12 minute speeches	21 colleges favor 6-6-7 minute speeches
4 colleges favor 12-10-10 minute speeches	3 colleges favor 7 minute speeches
3 colleges favor 15 minute speeches	2 colleges favor 8 minute speeches
2 colleges favor 7-7-7 minute speeches	1 college favors 4-4-4 minute speeches
40 colleges favor 3 speeches	28 colleges favor 3 rebuttals
20 colleges favor 2 speeches	3 colleges favor 2 rebuttals

Most directors agree that a two-man debate is more interesting to the audience but that a team of three is the more valuable educationally because its members a greater number of students.

(1) The writer finds it impossible to organize the comments suggested under reforms. The problem of judging is mentioned by a number of colleges. They add the "more training in judging," "uniform standards of judging," "more per the judges." Six colleges suggest the adoption of the "Oregon plan of debate." A number of colleges hope for less formality, more real with less attention to technicalities, more genuine discussion of the question in the debating of the issues. The following passages are quoted directly from the questionnaires:

"Too much responsibility now rests on coaches. Debates are apt to be too much the work of coaches. Students seem to practice too long on one subject. They ought to be tested on ability to investigate, to collect material and organize debates and on skill in presenting material to an audience in such a manner as successfully to persuade and convince."

"Abolish the special rebuttal speech. This forces the speaker to introduce rebuttal into the main speech. A few years of debating under this plan does much to develop flexibility. It is used exclusively by the Eastern Intercollegiate Debate League."

"Eliminate championships everywhere. Have students present their discussions before real audiences, audiences whose opinions they definitely set out to influence."

"Let us have more variety in types of debates, more willingness to try new sorts and arrangements."

APPENDIX VII

A PRINTED DEBATE PROGRAM

LEAGUE DEBATE

Between

DIXON HIGH SCHOOL and AMBOY HIGH SCHOOL

Held at Dixon
Friday, March 7, 1930

QUESTION

Resolved: That the United States should cease to protect, by armed force, capital invested in foreign lands except after formal declaration of war.

Amboy—Affirmative	*Dixon—Negative*
Hazel Roth	Charles Lomax
Wallace Jones	Ralph Kehl
John Holmes	Richard Weaver

Chairman: Dr. James H. Whitcomb

Tomorrow night Dixon's affirmative team, consisting of Thomas Eggleston, Ruth Hardesty, and Ray Hawkins, will meet Amboy's negative team at Amboy.

COMING DEBATES: March 14: Ashton vs. Dixon
March 21: Princeton vs. Dixon

APPENDIX VIII

A SPECIMEN FORENSIC BOARD CONSTITUTION

Article One

Section 1. The Forensic Board shall be composed of:

a. The men's debate manager

b. The women's debate manager

c. One representative from each of the debating societies.

d. The debate coaches

Section 2. The debate managers shall be appointed by the president of the Student Association, following conference with the debate coaches, at the opening of each school year and shall serve throughout the year.

Section 3. Either debate manager may be designated by the president of the Student Association to represent debating activities on the Student Council.

Article Two

Section 1. The duties of the Forensic Board shall be:

a. To supervise intra-mural debating.

b. To advise the debate managers in regard to intercollegiate debating.

c. To approve awards for intercollegiate debaters.

Section 2. Each member shall have equal voting rights at all meetings of the board.

Article Three

Section 1. The debate managers shall cooperate with the respective coaches in scheduling debates, handling local arrangements, and securing publicity.

Section 2. One manager designated by the president of the Student Association shall:

a. Act as the agent of the Council in handling debate finan-

ces, presenting budgets for the approval of the Council and submitting reports following individual debates.

b. Be a regular voting member of the Council.

c. Preside at the meetings of the Forensic Board.

SECTION 3. In the absence of the one, the other debate manager shall act, both in presiding at the meetings of the Forensic Board and in representing debate activities on the Council.

ARTICLE FOUR

All meetings of the Forensic Board shall be called by the debate manager at his discretion or on request of any two members of the board.

ARTICLE FIVE

Proposed amendments to this constitution shall be read at a meeting of the board at least one week before final action is taken, and shall require a two-thirds vote for adoption.

APPENDIX IX

CONSTITUTION AND BY-LAWS OF A HIGH SCHOOL DEBATING SOCIETY

Article I: Name

The name of this organization shall be the Forum of Marshfield High School.

Article II: Purpose

The purpose of this organization shall be to give its members practical training in various forms of public speaking such as debate, extempore speaking, oratory, declamation, and discussion, and in parliamentary procedure; to increase knowledge of and interest in public speaking throughout Marshfield High School; to support in every way possible representatives of said high school in interscholastic contests.

Article III: Membership

Section 1. All students attending Marshfield High School, except freshmen during their first semester, shall be eligible for membership, provided they meet the requirements as set forth in the by-laws.

Section 2. Honorary membership may be extended to others on the basis of special interest in the work of the society.[1]

Article IV: Officers

The officers of this organization shall be President, Vice President, Secretary, Journalist, Treasurer, and Advisor.

Article V: Meetings

The regular meetings of this organization shall be held on Tuesday evening of alternate weeks from September to April inclusive.[2]

[1] It is desirable to have honorary members. Their interest is an encouragement to students, and, whether from the faculty or outside, they may assist the regular advisor as critic.

[2] It may be preferable to hold meetings during the day. Some schools set aside a period of school time for the meeting of various organizations. Numerous clubs meet throughout the entire school year, while others, to avoid meetings that lag in interest, suspend with the advent of warm weather.

Article VI: Amendments

This constitution may be amended by a two-thirds vote of the members present at any regular meeting, provided notice of amendment is given at the preceding meeting.

BY-LAWS

Article I: Selection of Members

Section 1. New members shall be chosen in the following manner:

a. Old members may present names, or would-be members may file application on their own initiative with the chairman of the membership committee.

b. The membership committee shall investigate the records and relative merits of all prospective members and report findings to the society, following oral try-outs, at which the membership committee, together with the President and Advisor, shall act as judges.

c. The society shall vote by ballot upon each applicant separately.

d. A two-thirds majority of those present shall be required to elect new members to this organization.

e. If rejected, an applicant may be reconsidered in the elections of another semester.

Section 2. Election of new members shall occur not later than the third regular meeting of each semester.

Section 3. To insure a workable, homogeneous organization, membership shall be limited to forty members.

Section 4. Honorary members may be nominated and elected at any time. Election shall require a two-thirds vote.

Article II: Tenure and Duties of Officers

Section 1. Officers shall hold office for four months and shall be eligible to re-election.

Section 2. The President shall preside at all meetings, appoint committees, call special meetings at his own discretion or upon request of three or more members, act as chairman of the cabinet, and discharge such other duties as commonly fall to his office.

Section 3. The Vice President shall act in the President's absence and shall serve as chairman of the program committee,

SECTION 4. The Secretary shall keep the minutes of all society and cabinet meetings, call roll, read notices, and discharge such other duties as usually fall to that office.[3]

SECTION 5. The Journalist shall act as historian, conduct correspondence, and act as chairman of the publicity committee.

SECTION 6. The Treasurer shall collect all dues and assessments, pay all bills as authorized by the society or cabinet, and act as chairman of the finance committee.

SECTION 7. The Advisor shall offer suggestions for the good of the organization and shall act as critic of speaking programs presented. (There may also be additional critics.)

ARTICLE III: ELECTION OF OFFICERS

SECTION 1. Officers shall be elected by ballot at the meeting preceding the last regular meeting in December and in April.

SECTION 2. At the meeting preceding that at which the election occurs the President shall appoint a nominating committee of three members, who, at the election meeting, shall present the names of one or more candidates for each office. Nominations may also be made from the floor.

SECTION 3. A majority vote of those present shall be required to elect.

ARTICLE IV: STANDING COMMITTEES

SECTION 1. There shall be a membership committee consisting of three members whose duty, in addition to those stated elsewhere in these by-laws, shall be to interest worthy students in joining this organization.

SECTION 2. There shall be a social committee of three members, to devise and execute plans for social periods at regular meetings when desirable and for special social meetings.

SECTION 3. There shall be a program committee of three members, whose duty it shall be to plan the regular programs and to assign tasks therein to *all* members of the society.

SECTION 4. There shall be a finance committee, the size of its membership to be determined by the President, its task to consist of formulating plans for the raising of money for the activities of the organization.

[3] The Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Journalist should be supplied, respectively, with permanent record books for minutes, financial record, and history (including clippings). The secretary should also have the constitution for new members to sign.

SECTION 5. There shall be a publicity committee of from one to three members, whose duty it shall be to secure publicity for the activities of the organization, both among its members and outside, and to assist in advertising school debates and other speaking contests.

SECTION 6. The President, ex officio, shall be a member of all standing committees.

ARTICLE V: CABINET

SECTION 1. There shall be a cabinet consisting of all officers, including the Advisor, and all chairmen of standing committees.

SECTION 2. The cabinet shall be empowered to settle all business arising between meetings and to act as judge of excuses for absence.

ARTICLE VI: DUES AND ASSESSMENTS

SECTION 1. Each new member shall be required to pay an initiation fee of twenty-five cents.

SECTION 1. Each member shall be required to pay twenty-five cents each half-year as regular dues.

SECTION 3. Special assessments shall be levied only if absolutely necessary, and, when authorized by majority vote, shall be binding on all members.

ARTICLE VII: ABSENCES

SECTION 1. Two unexcused absences from regular meetings in one half-year shall automatically drop a student from membership in this organization.

SECTION 2. Excuses shall be presented in writing to any member of the membership committee, who shall present them at the first cabinet meeting for final decision.

SECTION 3. A student may be reinstated in membership upon written petition by himself, followed by a two-thirds vote at a regular meeting.

ARTICLE VIII: QUORUM

One half the membership of this organization shall constitute a quorum.

ARTICLE IX: PARLIAMENTARY AUTHORITY

When the constitution and by-laws do not provide otherwise, this society shall be governed by Robert's Rules of Order.

APPENDIX X

ORGANIZATION AGREEMENT OF THE WESTERN CONFERENCE DEBATE LEAGUE

1. The following universities have made this agreement: Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa, Ohio State, Indiana, Northwestern, Purdue, and Illinois.

2. Purpose of Organization: To hold debates between the several universities, using a rotating schedule providing for four contests annually for each university, so arranged that each member university meets each of the others biennially.

3. Officials: The Secretary shall be the sole official of the league. This office shall rotate among the member universities in alphabetical order. The Secretary shall serve for one academic year. He shall be either the person who is in charge of speech courses or a member of his staff appointed by him. The duties of the Secretary shall be:

a. To receive suggested propositions for debate, notify the member universities of these suggestions, receive and tabulate votes on the propositions, and send to each university the result of the vote.

b. To receive from the member universities the reports of judges' decisions, and to report these to the member universities.

c. To call meetings of the League.

d. To take care of any other business of the League that may arise.

4. Dates of Debates: It is agreed that the second Thursday of December shall be the date for the first series of debates, and that the third Thursday of March shall be the date of the second series of debates.

5. Choice of Questions:

a. For the first-semester debates: Each university shall submit one proposition, correctly worded for debate, to the Secretary not later than September 20. The Secretary will then compile the complete list and send each university a copy. Each university shall mail its vote on the propositions to the Secretary on September 30. In voting on the propositions each one is to be

assigned a grade; first choice is to receive 100 and last choice 20 with the others assigned grades between these extremes according to the judgment of each university. The Secretary will then compile the grades assigned to each proposition and will notify each university of the result.

b. For the second-semester debates: Follow the same general plan. Questions are to be mailed by each university to the Secretary not later than December 1. The Secretary will then compile the list and mail a copy to each member of the League. The votes on these questions are to be mailed to the Secretary on December 10.

6. JUDGING:

a. Expert judges shall be used. Each university shall submit to its entertaining university a list of four names, from which the entertaining university shall select the judge.

b. The judge shall give a decision before the audience if that is the custom at the entertaining university, and later he shall explain his decision to the members of the teams and their coaches.

7. LENGTH OF SPEECHES: The constructive speeches shall be 12 minutes in length and the rebuttal speeches 5 minutes in length in all debates of this League.

8. CONSTITUTIONALITY OF PROPOSITIONS: It is agreed that constitutionality shall be waived in all propositions.

9. EXPENSES: Each visiting university shall provide for all expenses of its team. Each entertaining university shall provide for the fee and expenses of the judge. The judge shall receive a fee of $25 and his expenses.

10. Each university shall be represented in each debate by three men students. Membership on these teams is to be open to both graduates and undergraduates who are in good standing. ..... Each university is to determine its eligibility rule and may use freshmen if it desires to do so. It is recommended that any one student debate only once each year in this League.

APPENDIX XI

SPECIMEN CONSTITUTIONS OF STATE HIGH SCHOOL DEBATE LEAGUES

The constitutions of the Iowa and Indiana leagues are given in full, the first because it shows in detail the arrangements that are found with slight modification in many states, that of Indiana because it provides for individual discussion rather than team debating. Excerpts from the Michigan league illustrate differences from the Iowa plan—in centralization of management, district organization, single as compared with triangular debates, size of teams, limitation of speakers to one side, scoring of individual debaters.

IOWA HIGH SCHOOL DEBATING LEAGUE

Article I: Object

The object of this league shall be to promote training in public speaking in the high schools of Iowa by friendly rivalry.

Article II: Membership

Section 1. Any high school of Iowa, which is under public supervision and control and fully accredited, may become a member of this league by paying the annual dues.

Section 2. All schools seeking admission for any particular year must join not later than November 15th of that year.

Section 3. If more schools seek admission than can be accommodated in any district, they must be admited in the order of their application.

Article III: Debating Districts[1]

There shall be four debating districts as follows: Northwestern, Southwestern, Northeastern, Southeastern.

Article IV: Contests

Section 1. Each district shall hold preliminary contests to

[1] The names of the various counties comprising the respective districts have been omitted here.

determine the district winner between Thanksgiving Day and the second Friday in March inclusive.

Section 2. All schools will be arranged in groups of three for a triangular debate, the size of the schools and their location to be the basis of grouping. If a school drops out and the district director is unable to secure a substitute school, the two schools remaining shall debate each other, each sending a team to the other school.

Section 3. In the first debates the home team will uphold the affirmative, and thereafter alternate.

Section 4. Any school winning the contests in its district will be entitled to send its teams to the State University of Iowa for the semi-final and final contests.

Section 5. The contests of each series in any district shall be held on the same evening, except as specified in Section 6.

Section 6. When the dates for these contests shall have been set they shall not be changed, except by the consent of the two teams immediately concerned and this consent shall be secured by the school requesting the change.

Section 7. The semi-final and final contests shall be held ordinarily on the last Friday and Saturday in April, but not later than the 16th of May at the State University, and under the direction of the Executive Committee, except as hereinafter provided for.

Section 8. Any high school team failing to appear in debate at the appointed date, having been unable to secure a change of date as provided in Section 6 of this article, shall forfeit the debate.

Section 9. Any failure to comply with the conditions set forth in this article shall work a forfeiture of the debate upon the part of the team or teams failing to comply.

Section 10. In the inter-district contests the two western districts shall meet each other and the two eastern districts shall meet each other. These debates as well as the finals shall be held at the State University of Iowa.

Article V: District Directors

Section 1. The Superintendent of the winning school in each district, or some member of his faculty whom he shall appoint, shall be district director for the ensuing year.

Section 2. When for any reason the district has no director, the Executive Committee shall appoint such officer.

SECTION 3. It shall be the duty of the District Director to fix the dates for the preliminaries, give prompt notice of the same to the high schools of his district, and supervise pairing schools, to furnish all necessary information in regard to the working of the League, report interesting matter to the papers, and in other ways stimulate and sustain the interest in the contest among the schools of his district.

ARTICLE VI: EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

There shall be an Executive Committee consisting of five members. One shall be the Head of the Department of Speech of the University of Iowa, one the Superintendent of Public Schools in Iowa City, one the Director of the Extension Division of the University, one a member of the Department of Speech appointed by the head of the Speech Department and by the Director of the Extension Division, which appointee shall be chairman of the Committee, and a fifth member to be elected by the remaining members of the Committee.

The duties of the Executive Committee shall be:

SECTION 1. To appoint a local business manager to take general charge of the final contest.

SECTION 2. To have charge of the annual dues and be responsible for the same.

SECTION 3. To select the question for debate.

SECTION 4. To have full charge of the final contests.

ARTICLE VII: ANNUAL MEETING

SECTION 1. The annual meeting shall be held on the day of the final contest.

SECTION 2. The members of the Executive Committee, the district directors and one representative from each high school constituting the membership of the League, shall be allowed membership in the annual meeting.

SECTION 3. The privilege of a vote in the annual meeting shall not be abridged except in case such privilege shall give more than one vote to any high school represented in said meeting.

SECTION 4. The members of the League present at any annual meeting shall constitute a quorum.

SECTION 5. No proxies shall be allowed.

Article VIII: Debates

Section 1. The debaters shall be bona fide high school students doing creditable work in at least two subjects of the regular curriculum, and undergraduates of their school at the time of the contest.

Section 2. The debaters shall be separated from the audience and shall receive no help during the progress of the debate.

Section 3. Each school shall be represented by two teams, affirmative and negative, throughout the series of debates, each team to have two speakers. The personnel of any team may be changed by the school. Under no circumstances may a student debate on both teams in the same series of debates.

Section 4. The time and order of the speakers shall be as follows:

Opening	Rebuttal
Affirmative, 10 minutes	Negative, 5 minutes
Negative, 10 minutes	Affirmative, 5 minutes
Affirmative, 10 minutes	Negative, 5 minutes
Negative, 10 minutes	Affirmative, 5 minutes

Section 5. Time lost in unavoidable interruptions shall be made good to the speaker interrupted.

Section 6. Cheering a debater while he is speaking is forbidden. Time so consumed by the speaker's friends shall not be made up to him. Time so consumed by his opponents shall be made up to him.

Section 7. New matter, except it is strictly rebuttal, shall not be introduced in the last rebuttal speech of the affirmative.

Section 8. Speakers shall not be interrupted by their opponents except when the negative is attempting to protect its rights in accordance with the preceding section (Sec. 7, Art. VIII).

Section 9. Debaters shall be entitled to warning signals as they may direct.

Section 10. Debaters shall cease speaking when the signal is given.

Article IX: Judges

Section 1. Representatives of the teams shall mutually agree upon judges except for the final contests, which judges shall be selected by the Executive Committee, and all judges shall be selected for their capability, impartiality, and availability.

SECTION 2. Each contest shall be decided by three judges, who may or may not be remunerated.

SECTION 3. Unless the teams mutually agree otherwise as to distance, all judges for the district debates shall be selected from a distance not to exceed fifty miles by least railway mileage from the location of the debate.

SECTION 4. In any contest of the district series the visiting team shall submit to its opponent a list of twelve names and the entertaining team a list of six names. On the third day thereafter, these lists, if entirely acceptable, shall be returned to the senders arranged in the order of choice.

SECTION 5. These lists in each case must be sent in the first instance on the fifteenth day prior to the date previously arranged for the contest.

SECTION 6. The entertaining school shall invite the first and second judges from the list of twelve and the first judge from the list of six. In case any judge can not serve, the next judge from the list on which his name appears shall be invited.

SECTION 7. The form of invitation shall be as follows:

The high schools of.....and.....will hold a public contest in debate at.....on the evening of..... They join in a cordial request to you to act as a judge upon that occasion. The other judges invited are..... The question to be debated is, Resolved: that..... Your expenses will of course be paid.

Respectfully yours,
JOHN JONES,
.....High School
JOHN SMITH,
.....High School

SECTION 8. Two stamped envelopes shall be sent to each of the judges, one addressed to the principal of the visiting school and the other to the principal of the entertaining school.

SECTION 9. Any school violating any section of this article shall forfeit to its opponent the right to select judges of its own choice.

SECTION 10. It will be the duty of the judge (1) to determine which team has done the more effective debating; (2) to select the individual debaters in order of excellence. Each judge on the evening of the debate shall be provided with written instructions in the following form:

Instructions To The Judges

You are requested to determine which team should be awarded the decision, and to select the individual debaters in order of excellence.

In rendering your decision, both in regard to the teams and in regard to the individual speakers, you are to consider the merits of the debate *And Not The Merits Of The Question.* You are to remember that both thought and delivery are to be considered and that matter is of more importance than form. You are to discount speeches that are obviously and merely memorized productions, and you are to distinguish genuine argument from mere oratorical embellishment. "While a debate is not an oratorical contest, it should not be a dry, uninteresting statement of quotations, facts, and figures. A good debate is a strong, effective presentation of clear and logical thought. The judges should carefully weigh both excellence in thinking and excellence in speaking. They should award the decision to the team which shows the more effective combination of the two in a vital give-and-take discussion."

JUDGE'S VOTE

Question .....

Affirmative	Rank	Negative	Rank
1 ..... (first speaker)	____	1 ..... (first speaker)	____
2 ..... (second speaker)	____	2 ..... (second speaker)	____
Total		Total	

I vote for .....
(affirmative or negative)

which is the team with the Lower total rank.

Signed .....

Address .....

The judge shall assign to each individual debater a ranking on an 8-point scale, giving the best speaker 1 and the poorest speaker 8. Each of the other debaters shall receive a rating that properly shows, on a 1-8 basis, his degree of excellence. Grade no two the same. The judge shall base his decision on

the summation of the rankings of the teams, the team receiving the smaller summation being declared the winning team. The individual ratings shall be for the purpose of deciding the winning team in case of a tie and not for the purpose of selecting the best speakers.

In case the judges' decision for the affirmative and negative shall decide the debates without a tie, the grades of individual debaters shall not be considered. A unanimous decision of judges in one place shall prevail over a two to one decision in another place. The decision of an expert judge shall count as a unanimous decision. If no school wins two debates, the school winning the vote of the largest number of judges shall be declared the winner. In case of a tie, one team winning at one place and their opponents winning in the other, the summation of the individual grades given each school shall be taken. The school having the lower or lowest summation shall be declared the winner.

At the close of each debate each judge shall without consultation with any other judge register his decision upon the ballot furnished him, seal it in an envelope, and hand it to the teller appointed to receive it. The chairman of the debate together with the faculty representatives of the schools involved shall constitute a canvassing committee to see that the judges' decisions are rendered in accordance with the instructions provided. The chairman shall then announce the winning team. Immediately after the debate, the school authorities shall mail to the Chairman of the Iowa High School Debating League, State University of Iowa, these decisions as they were rendered by the judges. Also each winning school shall within twenty-four hours report the result of its debates to the district director in order to facilitate immediate arrangement of the next series.

Article X: Expenses

Section 1. The annual dues shall be two dollars, paid to the chairman by November 15.

Section 2. In the district contests each team shall defray its own expenses of travel and all home expenses.

Article XI: Disputes

All disputes among the members of the League, except in regard to the selection of judges, shall be settled by the Executive Committee, from whose decision appeals may be taken to

the Senate Board on Intercollegiate Debate and Oratory, of the State University of Iowa. If two teams have a dispute concerning the selection of judges, each team shall appoint one person, these two shall appoint a third, and these three shall settle the dispute. If either team shall refuse to accept the decision of the above committee, it shall lose by default.

Article XII: Amendments

The constitution and by-laws may be amended at any annual meeting by a majority vote.

BY-LAWS

1. Unless otherwise agreed the affirmative shall occupy the side of the platform to the right facing the audience.

2. The doors shall be kept closed while each debater is speaking.

3. Personal letters shall not be admissible.

4. When convenient both teams shall be seated on the platform.

5. Each school shall appoint a time keeper, and time keepers and presiding officer shall be instructed to interpret the time rule of the constitution strictly.

6. If any district champion fails to take part in the contests, another school may be designated by the chairman of the Executive Committee to continue the contests.

7. It is recommended that each school create a local fund to be used in the following manner: (1) to pay a portion of the expenses of the final contest in case there should be a deficit and in case that school should reach the final contest; (2) to use for a library fund, piano fund, or other local interests in case the above contingencies do not arise.

8. Before the contest, judges should be entertained at the hotel.

9. It shall be considered dishonorable for any person to attempt in any manner to influence the judges.

10. The Executive Committee may punish dishonorable conduct by expulsion from the League or by such other penalty as it may deem fit.

11. After any series of debates is concluded, the statement of the question for debate may be changed with the consent of all teams concerned. But the team desiring the change must restate the proposition and secure the consent of the other teams.

12. The paying of a coach in debate who is not otherwise regularly in the teaching staff is prohibited.

13. A chart shall be prohibited in a rebuttal speech, unless it shall have been explained in a constructive speech.

14. It shall be considered dishonorable for one school to send representatives to hear the debates of another school which it is likely to meet later in the series. It shall also be considered dishonorable for any team to seek or to give information concerning the argument used by a team which has not yet finished its debate season. It shall be considered that the making public by one school of charges of unfairness by another school in the League before such charges have been submitted to and acted upon by the Executive committee shall constitute dishonorable conduct.

MICHIGAN HIGH SCHOOL DEBATING LEAGUE

Article V: Officers

Section 1. The League shall be under the general auspices of the Extension Division of the University of Michigan.

Section 2. A Manager shall be appointed by the Director of the Extension Division, subject to the approval of the President of the University of Michigan and the head of the Speech Department. His term of office shall be one year. He shall have general oversight of the work of the League, shall pair schools for debate, fix dates, and notify schools of the same.

Article VI: Schedule of Debates

Section 1. As early as possible after the membership for the year is closed, the Manager shall complete a schedule for the debates of the year. This schedule shall give the pairing of the schools, the side that each school shall have, the place where the debate shall be held, and date of the debate.

Section 2. No variation from this schedule may be made, except that debates may be held *before* the scheduled time upon the definite agreement of the two schools concerned; or they may be held *one day later* upon the same condition, but they shall never be held more than one day after the scheduled time. Any school desiring a change of date must secure the consent of the other school concerned. This failing, the debate must be held on schedule time.

SECTION 3. Any school failing to appear at the time and place duly set for the debate shall forfeit the contest.

SECTION 4. The state championship debate shall be held in Ann Arbor in April. It shall be under the direction of the Manager.

ARTICLE VII: DEBATERS

SECTION 1. A high school debater shall be a bona fide high school pupil who at the time of any debate is doing pass work in three-fourths of his or her subjects, and is less than twenty years of age, and has been in high school less than nine semesters.

SECTION 2. Both boys and girls shall be eligible to places on teams.

SECTION 3. Each team shall consist of three debaters.

SECTION 4. Each school may have more than one team during the series, if it chooses.

ARTICLE IX: EXPENSES

SECTION 1. In the debates of the preliminary series each school shall pay its own expenses. The visiting school shall be responsible for its own expenses incident to whatever travel and entertainment is necessary for the debate. The entertaining school shall be responsible for whatever additional expenses are necessary for holding the debate. Any surplus funds shall belong to the entertaining school.

SECTION 2. In the debates of the elimination series the entertaining school shall be responsible for all expenses, including necessary expenses of the visiting team and one attendant, up to the limit of admission receipts. Beyond this, expenses shall be shared equally. Any surplus shall belong to the entertaining school.

SECTION 3. In the state contest, the University shall pay the expenses of the two visiting teams and the coaches (one coach for each team) from the funds of the High School Debating League if such funds are available, and if not, from the funds of the University Extension Division. In case there is a girl on the team and the coach is not a woman, the expenses of a chaperon shall also be paid.

ARTICLE X: DISPUTES

SECTION 1. All disputes among members of the League relating to the interpretation of the Constitution shall be submitted to the Manager for settlement. His decision shall be final. Dis-

putes as to judges shall be settled by the two schools involved. The Manager reserves the right to cancel any debate in which there is such disagreement concerning judges as to make it impossible to hold the debate at the time agreed upon.

Section 2. In no case will the decision of any debate be reversed by the Manager, and in no case may a debate be held over again. The fact that a debate has been held shall be considered prima facie evidence that the conditions were agreed to. Where conditions are not agreed to and the debate is not held on time, both schools will generally be considered as having forfeited.

Section 3. The Manager shall have the right to penalize a member school for a wilful infraction of the League Constitution.

Article XI: Amendments

This Constitution may be amended from year to year as experience shows changes to be desirable. Suggestions will be gladly received by the Manager, and amendments may be proposed by any member of the League.

INDIANA STATE HIGH SCHOOL DISCUSSION LEAGUE

Organization: The Extension Division arranges for the selection of a committeeman in each congressional district, who has charge of the contest organization within his district. A chairman is selected in each county, who arranges for the county contest. Any high school in the state may organize a local contest, and in order to be properly registered for the contest needs only to fill out the enrollment blank which is sent to each high school principal in the state. After it is filled out it should be mailed immediately to the Bureau of Public Discussion of the Extension Division of Indiana University. The enrollment fee is one dollar.

Nature of the Contest: Each contest takes the form, not of a formal debate, but rather of an informal discussion. Each participant is free to present the subject from whatever point of view he chooses, and is expected to defend his point of view against attack.

Rules and Regulations: Commissioned and accredited high schools in Indiana are eligible to membership in the High School Discussion League. Any bona fide undergraduate student of these high schools (i. e. one carrying four studies of five reci-

tations per week) may compete in the local contest. (Seniors are eligible even if they are not carrying full-time work, provided that they are students in good standing as determined by the requirements of the local school. Also students who complete the work necessary for graduation at mid-year but who continue in school in good standing until the end of the school year are eligible.) No student who is not maintaining a passing grade in all his studies is eligible to enter the contest series.

The contest series will be as follows: a local contest, a county contest, a district contest, and a final state contest. The winner of the local contest will represent his school in the county contest; the winner of the county contest will represent his county in the district contest; and the winner of the district contest will represent his district in the final state contest. All contests will be public.

The Discussion question will be the same for all contests of the series. Each participant will attack the subject from his own point of view. He will be allowed eight minutes for his constructive speech, and three minutes for extemporaneous rebuttal, in all contests except the state. In the final state contest the time for rebuttal shall be increased to five minutes.

The order of speaking for both constructive and rebuttal speeches will be determined by lot immediately before the contest.

Participants will not be permitted to use manuscripts. Very brief memorandum notes are permissible.

The contestants will be judged on argument and on effective delivery.

The local contests will be in charge of the local school authorities. Any number of participants may appear in the local contest.

The county contest will be held in the town where the county chairman resides unless some other place is agreed upon by the contesting schools. The county chairman will have charge of the contest in his county, and will notify immediately both the committeeman of his district and the Bureau of Public Discussion of the Extension Division of the result of the county contest.

The district contest will be held in the town where the district committeeman resides unless some other place is agreed upon by the contesting schools. The district committeeman will have charge of the contest in his district and will notify im-

mediately the Bureau of Public Discussion of the Extension Division of the result of the district contest.

The final contest will be held at Indiana University. At a preliminary contest held in the afternoon six of the thirteen contestants sent to the final state contest will be chosen to appear at the final contest in the evening. The Extension Division of the University will have charge of all regulations concerning the final contest.

Directions To District Committeemen And County Chairmen. It is the duty of the district committeemen and county chairmen to make all necessary arrangements for their respective contests.

1. Determine the place and time for holding the contest. (It is the privilege of the committeemen or the chairman to hold the contest in the town where he resides.)

2. Notify the schools which may send contestants to your contest.

3. Secure three disinterested judges to judge the contest. No person shall act as judge who is a relative of any contestant or who is in any way connected with the school represented by a contestant, or who is likely for any other reason to be prejudiced for or against a particular contestant. (It is suggested that the county chairman submit his list of judges for approval to the teachers in charge of the contests in those schools in his county which are members of the League and that the district committeeman submit his list of judges for approval to his county chairmen and to the teachers in charge of the contests in the schools which are declared winners of the county contests; i. e. those schools which are entitled to send representatives to the district contest.)

4. Secure a chairman to preside at your contest.

5. *Immediately* after the completion of your contest, report the result of the contest to the Bureau of Public Discussion of the Extension Division on the blank provided for that purpose. County Chairmen, report also to your district committeeman. Enclose with your report to the Extension Division the judges' sheets used at the contest.

Fifteen minutes after the close of the contest, collect the signed decisions of the judges, and determine the rank of the contestants as follows:

On each of the three sheets, verify the *averages,* and from the averages, determine the *ranks* as follows: give to the speaker

with the *highest average* the *rank* 1; to the speaker with the next highest average, the *rank* 2; and so on. (Thus on each sheet the speaker with the *highest average* has the *lowest figure* for *rank,* and vice versa.) *Add* the *ranks* given to each speaker. Declare the speaker who receives the *lowest total* of *ranks* the *winner* of the contest. However, if any contestant is ranked *first* by two of the three judges, he shall be declared the winner, regardless of the totals. In case of tie, give the decision to that one of the tying contestants who has the highest averages.

Directions For Judging The Contests. No set rule of percentages has been formulated for judging the discussion contests. Both thought and delivery are to be taken into account by the judge who is expected to base his judgment upon the contestant's performance as a whole, as a piece of forceful, convincing, and effective discussion. In the rebuttal, care should be taken to guard against giving high rank to the refutation that has been committed to memory; the contestant should be judged upon his skill in meeting his opponent's arguments.

In the event that there is no occasion for refutation (i. e. that all contestants take the same position), the contestant should use his three minutes to elaborate points in his own constructive arguments, to propound new arguments to strengthen his position, or even to seize upon his opponent's argument and elaborate it. That is, in the rebuttal in all circumstances, the test should be the contestant's skill in meeting the situation that confronts him.

The printed blanks which will be used by the judges in all contests will bear the following instructions:

You are instructed that this is an informal discussion in which each participant is free to present the general topic from whatever angle he chooses. Base your judgment upon effective discussion, taking into consideration both thought and delivery. It is expected that contestants will present an extemporaneous rebuttal which meets the arguments actually offered by opponents. Base your judgment of the refutation, therefore, primarily upon its spontaneity and aptness, rather than upon its form. No student who presents a memorized rebuttal at the final contest will be eligible to receive any of the medals awarded.

Expenses. The participating schools are expected to bear the traveling expenses of their contestants in the county, district, and state contests. To defray the necessary expenses, it is suggested that a small admission fee to the contest be charged, or that a local entertainment, social, or fair be given to raise the necessary funds.

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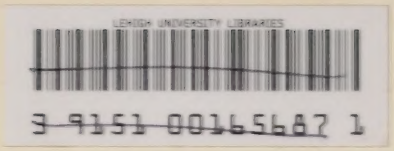

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